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THE PORT AND TRADE OF LONDON,

HISTORICAL, STATISTICAL, LOCAL, AND GENERAL.

BY

CHARLES CAPPER,

MANAGER OF THE VICTORIA (LONDON) DOCKS.

> "The time shall come, when, free as sea or wind,
> Unbounded THAMES shall flow for all mankind;
> Whole nations enter at each swelling tide,
> And seas but join the regions they divide."
>
> POPE.

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PREFACE.

The present work originated in a want of which I became conscious as Manager of an important commercial undertaking connected with the Port of London.

In the daily course of commercial transactions, I found myself under the necessity of searching a great variety of books of reference, for the purpose of correctly ascertaining points, of history and practice, which I failed to find in any one volume to which I could refer.

It occurred to me, under these circumstances, to bring together all the information I could respecting the Port of London—its history, its trade, its management, its statistics, and its customs. The inquiries necessary for this purpose, as I believe always happens in such cases, gradually, and almost insensibly, extended themselves far beyond the limit originally intended. I laid out for myself, in the first instance, certain salient matters of inquiry; but soon found that the investigation of each topic involved considerations not originally anticipated, and that what was intended for a note-book was speedily swollen into a volume.

The historical chapters of this work, which occupy so many pages, were originally designed to form a summary. The chapters upon Trade, which fill more than a moiety of the volume, were entered upon under the impression that they would be embraced in a small proportion of the space they occupy. As my researches progressed, the subject amplified itself beyond anticipation, and extended itself into directions not previously contemplated. In the very outset, indeed, as the Reader will discover in some of the earliest of the following pages, I found that, in treating of the commerce of the Port of London, I was in reality dealing with the commerce of all England; and long before my task was developed, I found that in dealing with the trade of England, I was, practically, treating of the commerce of the world.

I thought, at one time, that I should have to apologise to the reader of this book for its redundancy. As I approach its conclusion, I feel most sensibly that what I have really to regret is, its incompleteness. The multitude of "facts and figures" compressed in the following pages, is rivalled, probably, in very few works that are not designedly statistical. Nevertheless, had space permitted, I could have added to these to an extent which may almost be characterised as unlimited. If, instead of closely analysing and condensing the facts embodied in the many volumes I have found it necessary to consult, I had contented myself with "cuttings" from their pages, this volume might have been extended to dimensions which would have rendered it practically of as small avail for purposes of reference to others, as I found still larger volumes at the commencement of my task.

What I have endeavoured to do is, to bring together all that is of interest and importance to the practical man of business. Differences of opinion will, of course, prevail as to what is of interest, and what is of importance. The historical student will naturally think I have omitted to develop many points which others will consider I have dwelt upon too largely. On the other hand, some may think that I have dwelt too much upon the past, without sufficiently regarding the state of trade at the time present, or, it may be, speculating enough upon the future. In view of these and other critical objections, I can only say that, as a practical man, I have striven to bring into association those historical features which appeared most forcibly to bear on our existing commerce, and to regard that existing commerce mainly with an eye to its growth and development in those channels which our present experience allows us to foresee.

At the outset, also, I anticipated objections which assumed a different phase as the work progressed. I thought, at first, it would be said, "This book is merely a compilation;" and I prepared myself with the ready answer, "That all history was, of necessity, a compilation; and that it was a very bad history that did not resort to the most numerous authorities." But, long ere the work arrived at a conclusion, I found substantial grounds, less for fearing this objection, than for apprehending that my views might be condemned as running wide of history. Many there are, even in these days of commercial advancement, who will probably be startled by new, and what some may, perhaps, consider bold opinions, as to the influence and effect of commerce on public events. To such, I must be permitted to recommend an attentive consideration of the influence of commercial and private interests on political occurrences. For my own part, the more deeply I have dived into the history of commerce, the more I have become convinced that its teachings have been too often ignored or misinterpreted. Following the interpretations of historians whose records refer to periods antecedent to the growth of commerce, modern writers have been in the habit of attributing the outbreaks of war and the restoration of peace to the passions of monarchs, the intrigues of courts, the workings of ambition, religious animosities, or the jealousies of neighbouring and rival nations. The time has come when, looking more deeply into the causes of events, we may rather find that wars and revolutions, as well as treaties and prolonged periods of peace, have to a great extent had their origin in the commercial necessities and interests of peoples. Going back to the great events of our own history—to the Wars of the Roses, or the Civil Wars of the Commonwealth—we may find that the accession and deposition of monarchs was not unfrequently attributable to the influence exercised by the citizens of London, and we shall as frequently find that the citizens of London sought or derived some commercial advantages from the course they followed.

This view, as well as many others developed in this volume, may be novel to many; and will be subject to criticism. I have written, however, in sincerity and in good faith; and, whether my views are shared or otherwise, I trust that I may venture, without pretension or undue assumption, to offer this account of the Port and Trade of London to those who, like myself, are interested in its commerce, as a book embodying a vast amount of information not previously accessible in any one volume. The book may also be offered as a LANDMARK. The commerce of Great Britain has risen, during the last half century, in a degree, with a rapidity and to an extent, utterly unexampled in the history of the world. In 1860, the import and export trade of Great Britain amounted to no less than the gigantic and almost inappreciable sum of

THREE HUNDRED AND SEVENTY-FIVE MILLIONS
(£375,000,000) STERLING!

The present volume, to some extent, develops how, when, and why, this enormous trade, unparalleled in the world's history, rose, in a comparatively brief space, to this amount. It shows, not alone the progress of commerce, but its vicissitudes; the difficulties it has had (and still has in some quarters) to encounter; and it deals, unreservedly and boldly, with our own past and present blindsightedness, shortcomings, and mismanagement.

In recording the statistics of our commerce, it will be observed that I have taken the year 1860 as the basis of all computations of the value of our imports and exports. There are sound reasons why the statistics of that year should be preferred to those of any other. 1860 was, in Great Britain, a year of comparatively uninterrupted trade. There were no disturbing causes immediately operating upon commerce at any period of that year. This was not the case in 1859, when the Continent was suffering under the effects of the war in Italy; nor was it the case in 1861, when our trade was subject to great disturbance from the outbreak of the civil commotions in America. As the landmark of commerce, 1860 is decidedly the period from which we may therefore date with the greatest precision and advantage.

The facts embodied in this volume have been obtained from the best sources. The figures, where-ever practicable, have been taken from parliamentary returns. This work, moreover, has had the great advantage of having had its proof-sheets, as it passed through the press, subjected to the examination and criticism of some of the most practical men in each of the branches of commerce to which those sheets referred. In many instances the details of our trade with foreign states have been examined and revised by the Consuls or Vice-Consuls representing those countries in the city of London; to whom I have to tender my best thanks for the courtesy with which they have invariably responded to my inquiries, and afforded me information upon doubtful points.

The information respecting our colonial and coasting trades has, in the same way, been derived from the best sources, and revised by the best authorities. I have to regret, in regard to these departments of the work, that the exigencies of the publication have necessarily contracted the limits of its information.

The same cause has obliged me to omit some chapters which I originally designed to insert, upon other matters appertaining to the business of the Port: as, for example, the Trinity House, the peculiar laws and customs of the Port, the management of Lloyd's, the insurance system, shipwrecks, the condition of the seamen of the Port, &c. &c. These and other subjects I find, very reluctantly, that it is necessary to leave untouched, although they involve considerations of great importance, and which, no doubt, properly form a portion of my subject.

In conclusion, I will only observe, that this work has been compiled and written amid a pressure of business most antagonistic to literary labour. On this account, as well as the first effort of an unpractised pen, I feel entitled to ask some consideration for errors and shortcomings. No one can be more sensible of the deficiencies of the book than I am. With all the kind aid and assistance which has been afforded me, I know how incomplete is the performance, and how much it falls short of the original design, in execution, whilst it exceeds it in mere bulk. I can claim for the work, however, the merit of good intention; and if, as a HANDBOOK to the PORT and TRADE of this great commercial Metropolis, the volume should prove useful, I shall feel that I have not employed my time and industry in vain, but that I shall reap my reward in the certain development and prosperity of British commerce in the "Port and Trade of London."

C. C.

9, MINCING LANE,
MAY 1, 1862.

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THE

PORT AND TRADE OF LONDON.

CHAPTER I.

HISTORICAL.

Introductory.

The commerce of London covers the ocean with its ships, and animates the most distant portions of the globe by its operations. An account of that commerce must ever form an important feature in the history of England; for London is not only the seat of Government and of the law, but she is the centre and focus of the great commerce of the nation.

Amount and magnificence of the commerce of London.

In the amount and magnificence of her trade, in its variety and extent, London infinitely surpasses all her predecessors. Tyre, Carthage, Alexandria, Byzantium, Venice, renowned for their commerce in former periods of the world, conducted a trade small indeed in proportion to the trade now carried on in London. These cities owed their commercial greatness mainly to their geographical position with reference to other trading nations. But the prosperity of London as a port of commerce is fortified, not only by this advantage, but by a combination of favourable circumstances of a peculiar and distinctive character.

The circumstances which govern and direct the commerce of a given place are—

27

Its suitableness to all the purposes of maritime requirements.

Its geographical position in reference to other trading nations.

The extent of population to be supplied through its agency.

Their wealth, and consequent power of consumption; and

Their industry or means of producing what will pay for that which they consume.

The trade of London exceeds that of every former seat of commerce

In all these respects London stands without a parallel and without a rival. The noble river Thames, which forms the Port of London, possesses all the conditions desirable in a port, whilst its geographical position, particularly in reference to the continent of Europe, cannot be surpassed. No city ever had within herself the population of London, and as great wealth is uniformly found to go with great numbers, it may be taken as certain that no city ever had her power of consumption. The commerce of London rules the productive industry of England. It is in that power of production that consists our power of consumption. We pay for the products of the world by greater luxuries produced at lower rates than the luxuries we purchase.

in consequence of the numbers, wealth,

and power of production of the people;

of the means of communication,

A secondary series of circumstances which combine to secure the supremacy of the commerce of London will be found in the means of communication, internal and external, of the Port. No city ever has been, and few can hope to be, more favourably situated in these respects. London rules the shipping trade of the world, and thereby communicates with every portion of the globe with so much facility that other nations come to her for means of transport. Her position in reference to our own coast, and her internal railways, place her

external

and internal,

within an easy distance of the sources of her export trade: thus enabling her to sell the commodities she supplies at the smallest possible charge above the prime cost of manufacture. The recognised stability of our institutions has made London the great centre of monetary operations; and it may be said that she rules commerce with threefold power, as the merchant, the carrier, and the banker of the world.

and of the monetary power of London.

Also, the disposition of the people for commerce,

London enjoys a third series of advantages, essential to the development of commerce. It is necessary for commerce that the people of a commercial nation should have, not only the aptitude, but a disposition for trade. Happily Londoners are not only disposed to trade, but their commercial character stands unrivalled. It is also essential to commercial greatness that the people of a nation should be free to trade, and that the laws by which its trade is regulated should be favourable to commercial intercourse. In these respects England advances with the age.

their free laws,

and maritime supremacy.

The supremacy of trade has also been said to be materially dependent upon maritime power, though it may reasonably admit of consideration whether maritime power is not equally dependent upon supremacy of trade: at any rate the two are certain to go hand in hand. London is the metropolis of the nation—the seat of its government—the representative of its power and of its wealth. London is, in fact, to England what England is to the whole world; and it may be safely predicated, so long as the great sources of her greatness—her raw material, her iron, her coal—remain unexhausted, so long must she maintain the supremacy that she has acquired as the greatest commercial nation of modern times.

The supremacy of London as a commercial city is of comparatively recent date. At all periods of her history, London has been, indeed, a place of trade, but that trade has not at all times been in her own hands, nor has it until a comparatively recent period borne any proportion to the trade of the world at large. It has been a fashion to say that until the reign of Elizabeth England possessed no trade. This is scarcely correct, although no doubt it was not until, or even after, the reign of Elizabeth that English commerce began to acquire importance. But as this subject is one of interest, and not irrelevant to the purpose of this work, it is proposed at the outset to trace the history of the commerce of the Port of London, so as to develop the various gradations through which it has passed, and the steps by which it has attained its present greatness.

Trade of Britain.

The earliest mention of London as a commercial city occurs in the works of BEDE, who, in referring to events of the year A.D. 604, describes London, though at that period the capital of one of the smallest kingdoms of England, as, "by its "happy situation on the banks of the noble "navigable river Thames, the emporium for many "nations repairing to it by land and sea." * It is not, indeed, to be supposed that at a much earlier period there was any trade with the Thames. Although the Carthaginians, doubtless, sent ships to Cornwall for tin and hides, and although there was a

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* Bede, His. Ecc. lib. ii. c. 3. It is observable that King Alfred, in translating the passage referred to, speaks of "Ceap-Stow" (merchandise place); an allusion which will explain the name of one of the principal trading streets of London.

certain trade carried on with Britain by the Veneti,* of which we have no particulars, the trade appears to have been entirely passive on the part of the original inhabitants of our island. Indeed trade on their part was impossible, for they had no ships. No early author mentions any kind of vessel belonging to the Britons other than boats, of which the keel and principal timbers were made of light wood, and the bottom and sides of a kind of basket-work of osiers, the whole being covered with hides.

Under the Romans.

The Romans, no doubt, carried on a certain trade with England, but it was a trade chiefly for the supply of articles of luxury, necessary for their own use and consumption, and which could not be produced within the island. Brazen utensils, earthenware, and salt, appear to be the only articles of import that could have entered into general use. The exports under the Romans were principally of tin, lead, hides (under which description, perhaps, wool may be included), some corn,† cattle, iron, amber, ornaments for bridles, and other toys (made probably of bones), of slaves (who were captives taken in the wars carried on by the tribes against each other), of dogs, which were highly valued by the Romans in hunting, and bears, which were used in the sanguinary sports of the Roman circus. Oysters (which must have arrived at Rome in very indifferent condition) were sent through Gaul by Massilia (Marseilles) to Rome from the coast of Kent; and the Romans also delighted in a British wild-fowl, called by them cheneros, which was probably the goosander, or the wild-duck. This appears to have been the extent of the trade of Britain in the days of the Romans, who, besides that they held commerce in contempt,* were probably too much occupied in the subjugation and safe military custody of the island to attend to the development of its resources.

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* The Veneti are said by Strabo (lib. iv. p. 297) to have been a Belgic nation settled near the north-west extremity of Gaul; on the coast opposite Devon and Cornwall. They were utterly annihilated by Cæsar, who, after destroying their fleet and fighting men, massacred all their senate, and sold the people for slaves (*vide* Cæs. Bell. Gal. lib. iii. cc. 7—16).

† The Romans described England as "stored with corn." The abundance of grain was stored in subterranean storehouses.

Under the Saxons.

For a considerable period after the Roman evacuation there appears to have been an entire absence of commercial intercourse between England and the Continent. But previous to the year 800 we find notice of a trade carried on in English productions through France. This is to be found in a letter of Charlemagne to Offa, then in effect monarch of all England, which is given by Matthew Paris,† and of which the translation is as follows :—

Charlemagne's letter to King Offa concerning English merchants, A.D. 796.

> "CHARLES, by the grace of God, King of the Franks and Lombards and Patrician of the Romans, to our venerable and most dear brother, Offa, King of the Merkians, greeting;
>
> "First, we give thanks to Almighty God for the sincere Catholic faith which we see so laudably expressed in your letters.
>
> "Concerning the strangers, who for the love of God and the salvation of their souls, wish to repair to the thresholds of the blessed Apostles, let them travel in peace, without any trouble.
>
> "Nevertheless, if any are found among them not in the service of religion, but in the pursuit of gain, let them pay the established duties at the proper places.
>
> "We also will that merchants shall have lawful protection in our kingdom according to our command; and if they are in any place unjustly aggrieved, let them apply to us or our judges, and we shall take care that ample justice be done to them."

Nature of their trade.

It is evident from this that English traders resorted to the Continent at this period, chiefly in the guise of pilgrims. The articles which they carried with them were evidently such as admitted of being carried about their persons, or as a traveller's baggage, and were probably works of gold and silver, which the Anglo-Saxons were skilful in manufacturing.* Reliques, images of saints, precious stones, and dresses for priests, are supposed to have been the chief articles of their homeward cargo.

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* *Vide* Gibbon's Rome, vol. iii. p. 404.

† Vit. Offæ, p. 20.

The Saxon ships.

Mr. Strutt, in his Chronicles of England (vol. i. p. 437), describes the Saxon vessels :—

> "The form of the Saxon ships," he says, "at the end of the eighth century or the beginning of the ninth, is happily preserved in some of the ancient manuscripts of that date. They were scarcely more than a very large boat, and seem to have been built of stout planks, laid one over the other, in the manner as is done in the present time.† Their heads and sterns were very erect, and rose high out of the water, ornamented at top with some uncouth head of an animal, rudely cut. They have but one mast, the top of which is also decorated with a bird, the head of a bird, or some such device. To this mast is made fast a large sail, which from its nature and construction could only be useful when the vessel went before the wind. The ship was steered by a large oar with a flat end, very broad, passing by the side of the stern; and this was managed by the pilot, who sat in the stern, and thence issued his orders to the mariners."

It is obvious from this that no trade could have been carried on in articles of bulk. By some writers it has been imagined that under Alfred England carried on a trade of some importance even with remote countries, and they have instanced, and occasionally much exaggerated, "an expedition" which that great monarch is said to have sent forth to India. The authority on which this expedition rests appears to be that of William of Malmesbury, who

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* The gold and silver ornaments which have been found in barrows in different parts of the kingdom, show that the art of working in those metals was understood even by the Ancient Britons. Undoubted proof of the skill of English jewellers in the reign of Alfred is afforded by a piece of ornamental work in gold, preserved in the Ashmolean Museum, and which the ancient inscription on it declares to have been made by the command of Alfred himself. The goldsmith's work in this relique is of very considerable excellence, and is greatly admired by competent judges.

† He probably means that they were what is technically termed "clinker-built."

Bishop Sighelm's expedition to India,

mentions that Sighelm, Bishop of Shireburn,* was sent by the king with relief to the Christians of St. Thomas in India, and that he accomplished his expedition prosperously, and penetrated to India, from which he returned with aromatic oils and splendid jewels. King Alfred himself has left no account of this expedition. It is well known that Sighelm went to Rome A. D. 883, and it is probable that he may have passed by way of Alexandria to Bussora, or even to India itself. But if he purchased oriental commodities at Alexandria or Bussora, they were pretty certain to have been confounded by his countrymen with purchases made in India. At any rate, it is obvious that this expedition had no commercial consequences.

A.D. 883.

Foundation for commerce laid by Alfred,

If Alfred did not establish England as a commercial nation, he went far to lay a sound foundation for commerce. There is no doubt that he obtained geographical information respecting the Baltic and White Seas. He also made great improvements in ship building, and in the science of navigation; and one of his laws shows that he had due respect for foreigners arriving in England, for he made regulations for their full protection. In a succeeding reign King Athelstan allured his subjects to engage in commerce, by a law which conferred the rank of Thane on every merchant who made three voyages over the sea with a vessel and cargo of his own; but the greatness of this reward would seem to indicate how few there were in the kingdom who were capable at that time of acquiring it; for it has been well observed that "if "many English merchants had traded to foreign "countries, or if many of them had been capable of

and inducements offered by King Athelstan, A.D. 938.

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* The see of Shireburn was removed to Old Sarum, by Herman the Bishop, in the reign of William the Conqueror (*vide* Camp. Liv. Chan. vol. i. p. 42). Some of the jewels brought home by Sighelm, are said to have been deposited in Salisbury Cathedral.

" fitting out and loading vessels, this attempt of " Athelstan to induce his subjects to avail themselves " of the natural advantages of their insular situation, " would have been neither necessary nor proper."

First settlement of the Easterlings as merchants in London.

It was probably the attraction of such rewards and encouragements that induced, a very few years afterwards, the first settlement of merchants in London. These were the so-called Easterlings, or Merchants of the Steelyard, a branch of the famous commercial confederacy, first formed on the east shores of the Baltic, in the eighth century, for the protection of their trade from the piratical incursions of the Northmen. Pennant styles the Easterlings "our masters in the art of commerce.' They are known to have been settled here before the year 978, for a regulation of King Etheldred, of that date, declares that "the emperor's men, or East- " erlings, coming with their ships to Belingsgate, " shall be accounted worthy of good laws." Under the same ordinance they were not to forestall the markets of the burghers of London, and were "to " pay toll at Christmas, two grey cloths and one " brown one, with ten pounds of pepper, five pairs of " gloves, two vessels of vinegar, and as many at " Easter."

Regulations relating to them, A.D. 978.

Their settlement at the Steelyard.

A long account of the Easterling guild of London will be found in *Stow's Survey*,* accompanied by a chronological account of their charities and privileges. Their principal factory in London was in Downgard (Dowgate) Ward, in Thames Street, the premises now occupied by the Victoria Dock Company of London. The settlement of the Easterling merchants in London appears to have been immediately followed by trade resorting to the port from foreign ports. The law passed at Wantage in

Foreign trade which followed their settlement.

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* Stow's Survey, vol. i. p. 292.

Berkshire, in the reign of King Etheldred, which imposed duties on vessels arriving at "Bilynggesgate," made exemptions in favour of "the men of Rouen, "who brought wine and large fish, those of Flanders, "Ponthieu, Normandy, and France, who showed their "goods and cleared the duties, as did also those of "Hegge, Liege, and Nivele."

Articles imported:

Exported.

The exportations from England at this period must have been almost exclusively wool and hides. There is no reason to suppose that under the Anglo-Saxon government corn was at any time shipped from England; indeed, at the time of the Conquest, a very large proportion of the country appears to have been in the state of uncultivated forest, which was chiefly useful for feeding hogs and wild animals, and furnishing fuel and timber for building.

Internal trade.

The internal trade of the country during the same period must also have been on a diminutive scale, since under one of the laws of Edward the Confessor, the presence of two or more witnesses, and of the chief magistrate, the sheriff, the priest, or the lord of the manor, was necessary to give validity to a bargain of more than twenty pennies.

Commercial state of England at the Conquest, A.D. 1066.

The Norman Conquest does not appear to have had any immediate effect upon the trade of the country. William the Conqueror did indeed "invite "the vessels of foreign merchants by assurances of "security and protection," but the turbulent state of the country, in which "the law directed that "markets should nowhere be held but within burghs, "walled towns, castles, and safe places, where the "king's customs and laws would be secured from "violation," probably prevented their taking advantage of his assurances. London is exempt from register in Domesday Book, and what is to be collected from it concerning other places, gives no reason to think that England had any considerable trade at other ports. "In Sudwerche (Southwark) "the king had a duty upon ships coming into a "dock, and a toll on the strand." The king's income was rated at 16*l*. Dover, which was burnt soon after the arrival of King William in England, was rated at 54*l*.; and it is recorded that "ships are "greatly incommoded by the agitation of the water "occasioned by a mill at the entry of the harbour, "which was not there in the time of King Edward." Sandwich paid 50*l*. and "40,000 herrings for the use of the monks." Yarmouth, which paid 17*l*. 16*s*. 4*d*. to the king, besides payments to the earl and sheriff, appears at that time to have been of inferior importance to Sandwich in the fishery, although it is recorded that "twenty-four fishermen "living in this town belong to Gorleston, a manor "on the south side of the river Yare," between which manor and Yarmouth, it may be observed that jealousies of various sorts continue to exist to this day. The Cinque Ports and their tributaries were the ports of the greatest consequence upon the coast, Dover and Sandwich taking the lead, Hythe, Romney, Rye and Winchelsea, and Hastings and Pevensey following. Pevensey at the time of William I. appears to have been largely resorted to, in consequence, no doubt, of the landing of the Conqueror having been effected under its walls.

Charters granted to the City of London by WILLIAM the CONQUEROR,

The charter granted by the Conqueror to the City of London made no mention of commerce. It merely declared "the burghers" of London to be "all law-worthy as they were in the days of King Edward," and assured them of the king's protection.* But

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* This Charter commences as follows: "William the King greets William the "Bishop, and Godfrey the Port-reve, and all the Burghers within London, French "and English, friendly."

"William the Bishop" was a Norman ecclesiastic set up by the Conqueror and by HENRY I. A.D. 1100. Henry I. on his accession, in a charter granted to "his citizens of London," declared "they and their "property of every kind quit and free from paying toll, "passage, lestage,* and other customs, throughout "all England and in all the seaports:" an important privilege to merchants carrying on trade *personally*,† as we may imagine some to have done, in small but valuable articles, either of export or import, across the sea to the Continent through the ports either of Sandwich, Dover, Rye, or Pevensey. Unfortunately it is recorded that the whole of Henry I.'s long reign was passed in the continual violation of all the articles of his charters, so that no benefit appears to have resulted from it to the mercantile community.

STEPHEN, A.D. 1135. Stephen, who relied principally upon the affections of the Londoners, commenced his reign by granting them a charter confirming, in general terms, the charters of his predecessor, and commanding "the "good laws of Edward the Confessor to be observed."

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himself with authority within the City. "Godfrey the Port-reve" was an elected officer, whose precise functions and authority it is now impossible to define; but as "Gerefa" (or Governor) of the "Port," it is obvious that he had authority over the "Port," as well as over the City of London: and it is conjectured that he also had authority over fiscal matters, such as the collection of dues, tolls, &c. It does not appear to be precisely known at what period the City of London acquired its rights (recently extinguished) as conservators of the Thames; but in Saxon times they disputed with the Church of Canterbury the right to a certain demesne near Sandwich, which they claimed to appertain to the Port of London.

* "Toll" is the generic term, of Gothic derivation, for every species of tribute levied upon the transit of commodities or persons throughout the realm. "Passage" was the charge for passing over ferries. "Lestage" was a custom, of variable amount, levied to the king's use upon every last of leather exported. In ancient times tolls were very numerous, and the abuses in collecting them were so notorious and oppressive, that it became necessary to restrain them under the severest penalties by statute (*vide* Coke's 2d Ins. 219). This exemption in favour of the citizens of London was unquestionably of important value. It still remains; but its benefits have been greatly curtailed by various decisions of courts of law, which have settled that these privileges cannot be claimed by, or on behalf of, non-resident citizens, nor against any tolls created by statute for new purposes; such as turnpike tolls, &c. (*vide* Norton's Hist. and Franchises of London, p. 364)

† In Scotland, about this period, the lands of merchants who traded to foreign countries, were declared exempt from seizure for any claim whatever during their absence, unless they appeared to absent themselves to evade justice. It is from this tolerably evident that trade at the time was carried on personally.

But whatever may have been this king's intentions, his whole reign was so completely occupied by the intestine wars arising from a disputed succession, that there was but small opportunity of cultivating commerce.

Charters of HENRY II.

The accession of Henry II., however, gave promise of great advantages to trade. By his marriage with Eleanor, Duchess of Aquitaine, he acquired the best wine country in France, and became master of all the west side of that kingdom. The merchants of all the French ports on the ocean became therefore fellow-subjects with those of England—a connexion which could not but have been very favourable to the commercial interests of both countries. Henry II. commenced his reign by confirming all the charters granted to the citizens of London, with additional privileges, and by taking measures for the organization of "guilds," or trading fraternities within the City, upon the principle of the guild of the Easterling merchants. One of the most ancient charters extant is a charter of Henry II. granted to the WEAVERS of London, "To have their guild "in London with all liberties and customs which "they had in the time of Henry, my grand-"father" (Henry I.).* The number of guilds created by this king, it is impossible now to say, inasmuch as none of the existing charters of City companies date back to this period. But Glanville, writing of the reign of Henry II., speaks of guilds as common institutions; and the History of the Exchequer gives a list of eighteen of the London guilds which were amerced during this reign as adulterine, or set up without the king's licence.†

A.D. 1154.

William Fitz-Stephen, who was a citizen of London,

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* This Charter has affixed to it the seal of Thomas à Becket.

† *Vide* Herbert's History of the London Livery Companies, vol. i. p. 24.

Fitz-Stephen's account of the commerce of London, temp. HENRY II.

and who may be called the historian of this reign, speaks thus of our capital in his famous "Life of Sir Thomas à Becket":—

"Amongst the noble and famous cities of the world, this of London, the capital of the kingdom of England, is one of the most renowned, on account of its wealth, its extensive trade and commerce, its grandeur and magnificence. . . .

"To this city merchants repair from every nation in the world, bringing their commodities by sea:—

"'Arabia's gold, Sabæa's spice and incense,
Scythia's keen weapons, and the oil of palms
From Babylon's deep soil; Nile's precious gems;
China's bright shining silks; and Gallic wines;
Norway's warm peltry, and the Russian sables,
All here abound.'"

Fitz-Stephen has been spoken of by modern writers as a "mere panegyrist," and the description recited has been read by Stow and more recent authorities, as if it were a specific detail of the importations of London at the time, instead of a poetical quotation in Latin hexameters. Fitz-Stephen's quotation may appear inflated, but there really is nothing in it that is not borne out by fact. The history of the Exchequer shows that silks, spices, frankincense, precious stones, palm oil, gems, furs, and wine were all brought to London at this age. The trade was not, indeed, in the hands of Londoners, but in the hands of the Easterling merchants, and of the Jews, who, following wealth and commerce, had come to make London their head quarters.* But that Fitz-Stephen did not exaggerate concerning London † is shown by

The foreign trade really in the hands of the Easterling merchants and the Jews.

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* To this, indeed, they were impelled, by an obligation to carry their dead from all parts of England for interment in one general cemetery appointed for them in Red Cross Street, an obligation which continued until the year 1177, when they obtained permission to purchase burial-grounds in other parts of the kingdom (Stow's London, p. 553).

† As, contrary to modern usage, I have set up the authority of Fitz-Stephen, who, since the time of Elizabeth, it has been the fashion to decry, it may be right to state, on his own authority, who he was. "I was," he says, "a fellow-citizen "with my lord [Thomas à Becket], one of his clerks, and an inmate of his family;

the evidence of another cotemporary writer, William of Malmesbury, who says,

Fitz-Stephen corroborated by William of Malmesbury.

"London is a noble city, renowned for the opulence of its citizens, who, on account of the greatness of the city, are considered of the first quality and noblemen of the kingdom. It is filled with merchandize, *brought by the merchants of all countries, but chiefly those of Germany;* and in case of scarcity of corn in other parts of England, it is a granary where it may be bought cheaper than anywhere else."

Trade of other towns of England, temp. Henry II.

It would scarcely be proper to pass from the mention of William of Malmesbury without chronicling what he records of the state of trade in other parts of England during this reign. BRISTOL he speaks of as "a celebrated town, and a port for vessels "coming from Ireland, Norway, and other foreign "countries." Henry II., in the eleventh year of his reign, gave the burgesses a charter. CHESTER he speaks of as "situated in a poor country, producing "scarcely any wheat, though there is abundance of "cattle and fish. The poor live on milk and butter, "the rich on flesh. Bread made of barley or rye is "thought a dainty. Some trade with Ireland supplies "the place with such necessaries as nature has denied "to it." DUNWICH is spoken of as a famous sea-port, stored with various kinds of riches. NORWICH as a populous town famous for its commerce. LYNN as a

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"and as, by express invitation, I was called to his service, I became a remembrancer "in his chancery, a sub-dean in his chapel, whenever he officiated, and when he "sat to hear and determine causes [as Lord Chancellor], a reader of the bills and "petitions, and, sometimes, when he pleased to order it, I even performed the "office of advocate. I was present with him at Northampton, when the most "important matters concerning him were agitated, and I was an ocular witness "of his martyrdom at Canterbury." Fitz-Stephen died in 1191. As he speaks of himself as a "fellow-citizen of my lord" [à Becket], it may be proper to observe that St. Thomas à Becket was the son of a merchant of London, of Saxon origin, and moderate wealth, who served the office of sheriff of the City. The father was that Gilbert Beck or Becket of whom the romantic legend remains that the daughter of an emir of Palestine fell in love with him in the Holy Land, and followed him to England, where, knowing no other English word but "Gilbert," she found him in Cheapside, and being converted to Christianity, became his wife.

city distinguished for commerce and abundance, the residence of many wealthy Jews, and resorted to by foreign vessels. GRIMSBY as an emporium resorted to by merchants from Norway, Scotland, Orkney, and the Western Islands. LINCOLN as one of the most populous seats of home and foreign trade in England, in consequence of the construction of a canal of seven miles in length, from the Trent at Torksey to the Witham at Lincoln,* which had given the city the command of an extensive inland navigation, and rendered it accessible to foreign vessels. WHITBY, HARTLEPOOL, and other places on the East coast, are spoken of as possessing vessels; and Berwick as a noble town belonging to the King of Scotland, and having more foreign commerce than any port in Scotland, and many ships.

Exports of England, temp. HENRY II.

Henry of Huntingdon, who wrote in the early part of this reign, speaks of the exports of England. "Mines of copper, iron, tin, and lead," he says, "are "abundant; and there are some, though but few, "mines of silver." We exported also "a wonderful "plenty of flesh and fish," (herrings and oysters are particularly noticed) our "most precious wool," our "milk" (probably converted into cheese and butter), and "cattle innumerable." So that, he says, "silver," which is brought in exchange for these from Germany, "is even more plenty in England "than in Germany; and all the money of England is "made of pure silver."

Not only was wool at this time a considerable item of export from England, but it appears to have been wrought up by weavers in our own country. Before the occupation of Ireland by the English, two merchant ships, bound from England for Dublin, laden with English cloths, were taken off Dublin by Swein, the Earl of Orkney, who, on his return home, covered his sails with scarlet cloths, and called that his "scarlet cruise." The art of dyeing was largely carried on in various parts of England, as appears from the quantity of woad imported.*

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* This canal remains open to this day, and is known as the Foss Dyke navigation. It is supposed that the Trent originally ran by a natural channel eastward to the sea, and that it was carried, artificially, northward to the Humber for purposes of drainage or navigation. If this was so, as an old map of Roman Britain would lead us to suppose, the Foss Dyke was only a restoration of the river to a part of its ancient channel, by letting in the water of the Trent.

Export of English cloth manufactures to Ireland.

It is observable that the articles exported from England at this period, were adapted to the wants of all classes of mankind, whilst those imported were in demand only among the superior ranks, and though sold at very high prices, amounted to but an inconsiderable sum in comparison with the exports. Hence the balance of trade was in favour of England, which led to the abundance of silver noticed by Henry of Huntingdon as brought into this country from Germany.

Balance of trade in favour of England, temp. HENRY II.

The greater part of the silver which came from Germany in this reign, probably returned to it in the next, in the shape of ransom money for King Richard I. That sovereign, engrossed as he was with wars for the recovery of the Holy Sepulchre, gave little encouragement to commerce, although the ultimate effect of the Holy Wars must have been propitious to it, by extending shipping, and acquainting the English people with foreign nations and their various productions. Richard, however, gave the citizens an extended jurisdiction over the Thames, with a view

Trade, temp. RICH. I.

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* Woad—a plant of the genus *Isatis*—was once the great staple of Languedoc. It imparts a lasting and substantial blue colour, which may be reduced to various different shades; and it is also of importance in fixing other colours. The use of woad has been superseded by that of indigo. The plant was known to the Ancient Britons, who are said to have used it in dyeing their bodies. The duty upon woad imported into London in the year 7 and 8 Rich. I. amounted to 96*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*., which shows that the import must have been very considerable (*vide* Madox's Hist. Exch.).

to improve its navigation. The first legal mention of corn exportation occurs in his reign, in the shape of a law passed in 1194, prohibiting the exportation of corn from England, in order "that England might "not suffer from the want of its own abundance." There is little reason to suppose that agriculture at this time had advanced so far as often to produce more corn than was needed for home consumption. But there was some occasional exportation of corn, for in 1181, a fine was paid to the king for licence to ship corn from Norfolk and Suffolk, for Norway.* The payment for this licence was, of course, equivalent to a customs duty upon exportation.

Exportation of corn.

Temp. KING JOHN.

Encouragements offered to foreign merchants. A.D. 1199.

King John commenced his reign by addressing a letter to the mayor and commonalty of London, in which he promised that foreign merchants of every country should have safe-conduct for themselves and their merchandize in coming into and going out of England, agreeable to the due, right and usual customs, and should meet with the same treatment in England, that the English merchants met with in the countries they came from. Similar letters were addressed to the sheriffs of Sussex, Kent, and Hants, the sheriff of Norfolk and Suffolk, the sheriff of Dorset and Somerset, the sheriff of Hertford and Essex, and the Sheriff of Devon and Cornwall, these being apparently esteemed at that time the trading counties of England. A similar letter was also sent to the Mayor of Winchester, and to the bailiffs of Southampton and Lynn. John also addressed a letter to the citizens of Cologne, offering them the freedom of resorting to his dominions with their merchandize, on paying the customary duties paid by their ancestors, an offer which they accepted in the following reign. He sent similar letters of encouragement to the merchants of Flanders and France, who were our greatest customers for wool.

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* Madox's Hist. of Exc. c. 13, § 3, note k.

Confirmed by the provisions of MAGNA CHARTA. A.D. 1215.

That these letters of invitation and assurance were consonant with the spirit of the age, is clear from the 41st clause of MAGNA CHARTA, which provides—

> "That all merchants shall have safety and security in coming to and in going out of England, and in remaining and travelling through it by land or water, for buying or selling, free from any grievous impositions, and agreeable to the old and upright customs; except in time of war, and except merchants belonging to a country at war with us, who, at the commencement of a war, shall be attached, without any injury to their persons or property, till it be made known to us, or our chief justiciary, how the merchants of our dominions who happen to be in the country at war with us are treated there; and if our merchants are not injured there, they shall not be injured here."

Consequent resort of foreign merchants to London, temp. HENRY III. A.D. 1220.

This great charter was renewed immediately upon the accession of Henry III. One of the first results was the resort of the Cologne merchants to London, who established here their "Gild-hall," under a special permission of the king, and who were permitted the privilege of attending fairs and markets throughout the kingdom. The trade of London at this time was no doubt on the increase; and whilst expensive wars, and domestic profusion continued to load the sovereign with debt and difficulty, the citizens of London increased so rapidly in wealth, despite all the extortions of the age, that the king himself was driven to say, "On my word, if the "treasury of Augustus were brought to market, the "citizens are able to be purchasers. These clowns, "who call themselves barons, abound in everything, "whilst we are reduced to necessities." *

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* M. Paris, p. 501. The citizens were "barons" in their capacity of tenants of the king *in capite* in free burgage. All burgesses of that quality acquired the title—*e. g.* the "barons" of the Cinque Ports.

Queenhithe appointed for disembarcation of goods in the Thames, A.D. 1225.

At an early period of this reign, regulations were made, by the authority of the Crown, for the disembarcation of goods in the river Thames. Queenhithe was appointed as the place for the delivery of corn coming from the Cinque Ports. Fish brought in vessels not belonging to the citizens of London, were, two years after, ordered to be delivered at the same place, and a fish-market was appointed to be held there. Queen-hithe appears at this time to have been a very important wharf. The corn, fish, salt, fuel, and other articles landed there, were sufficient to keep thirty-seven men and numerous horses employed as meters and carriers.

The foreign merchants agree to pay landing and wharfage dues in the Thames, A.D. 1236.

About the same period, the foreign merchants of London agreed with the citizens to pay to the mayor fifty marks annually, for the privilege of landing and storing the woad imported by them, instead of being obliged to sell it on board their vessels. This arrangement shows that the sale of woad, and, consequently, the manufacture in which it was used, must have been on the increase. This is the first record we have of any landing or wharfage dues within the Port. In furtherance, no doubt, of this arrangement, the City in the year 1246 purchased Queenhithe from Richard, Earl of Cornwall, and agreed to pay for it an annual rent of 50*l.* to him and his heirs.

Manufacturing industry promoted by foreign troubles,

Probably the manufacturing industry of England was at this time promoted by the troubles which prevailed in Flanders, where internal disturbances caused such a stagnation of business, that the English dealers in wool are said to have been greatly disappointed of their trade. The Cistercian monks, who were apparently the greatest breeders of sheep in the kingdom, and who claimed, as one of the privileges of their order, exemption from import or export duties both in England and Flanders, are recorded, in 1254, to have lost all their market.* A.D. 1254.

Spain, which afterwards supplied England with wool, was, at this period of our history, a purchaser of wool from England, for which she had nothing to export in return but gold. It would appear, indeed, that even previous to this time Spanish wool was considered of very inferior quality to English, for in the charter given by Henry II. to the London weavers, it was provided, that if any weaver mixed Spanish wool with English in making cloth, the chief magistrate of London should burn it. A regular customs duty was first charged in this reign upon the exportation of wool, the collection of which was regulated by Act of the Exchequer. Throughout this reign—mainly, no doubt, in consequence of the demand for English wool—the balance of trade remained in favour of England.

A customs duty first charged on exports, A.D. 1266.

The importance of the wool trade at this period is forcibly illustrated by occurrences in the years 1271 and 1274. In the former year, disputes having arisen between King Henry III. and the Countess of Flanders, on account of money which she claimed as owing to her, and for which she had seized English vessels, King Henry issued orders prohibiting the exportation of wool to Flanders, and for the seizure of all Flemish cloth imported from abroad. These restrictions upon trade proved, however, too severe, and it was soon permitted to resume its natural channel. In the 1st Edw. I., difficulties between the two countries broke out again, and the exportation of wool was again prohibited. But as the English could not consume all their own wool, and as the

Growing importance of the wool trade,

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* Ecclesiastics, in the reign of Edward III. A.D. 1344, were prohibited from engaging in trade, both in Flanders and in England. This, however, would not prevent them from breeding sheep and selling the wool.

Flemings could not manufacture without it, a treaty of peace was concluded in July, 1274, each party agreeing to make satisfaction for the damages done to the other side.

and increasing jealousy of foreign merchants.

Throughout the reign of Henry III., as we may gather from the list of customs for foreign merchandise, and of dues for the privilege of foreign merchant settlers, the foreign trade of London must have been very considerable. That trade, indeed, was almost entirely carried on by foreigners, against whom, at this time, much jealousy began to be manifested. Their introduction to the freedom of the City was objected to; they were compelled to sell and buy only with citizens under penalty of the forfeiture of all goods bought of and sold to other foreigners; and the City records show that these forfeitures were very numerous.* Despite all these restrictions, however, the commerce of the Port increased and flourished, as is shown by the exactions to which, in consequence of their wealth, the citizens of all classes were exposed.

Temp. EDWARD I. A.D. 1272.

It would appear from the course of events in the earlier period of the reign of Edward I., that the jealousies referred to increased in strength. The ordinances respecting foreign trade were, at the commencement of this reign, exceedingly conflicting. On the first accession of the king, the justices, who administered the kingdom during his absence in the Holy Land, appear to have given encouragement to foreign merchants; but soon after his return, a mandate was issued by the king himself, obliging all foreign merchants to sell their goods within forty days after their arrival in England;† thereby putting them entirely at the mercy of the buyers, unless when the demand happened to be very great. Shortly

Changes of policy.

Restrictions on foreign merchants, A.D. 1275, after, most rigorous measures were taken against the Jews, whose property was very generally confiscated; and this persecution was carried to such an extent that a few years afterwards all Jews were ordered to leave the kingdom and never to return on pain of death. The number thus expelled amounted to 16,511. The great charge against the Jews arose out of the depreciation of the coinage, and the circulation of bad money, which caused great inconveniences to trade. The bad money, smuggled into England in bales of cloth and other packages, consisted partly of light pieces and partly of counterfeits coined at Avignon, and made of base metals coated with silver. It does not appear that the Jews were responsible for this depreciated coinage; but as most of the money of the country was in, or passed through, their hands, it is scarcely surprising that the deterioration was attributed to them. The charge of depreciating the coinage extended itself to other foreigners, and it was ordered that on entering the kingdom they should submit all their money to the inspection of officers appointed by the Government. At a subsequent date other officers were appointed to superintend the payments of the merchants throughout the kingdom, and to examine their money, and in 1299, still stricter laws were made to prevent the circulation of any inferior or foreign coin.* As might have been anticipated from the first, it ultimately became necessary to issue a new coinage, which was done in 1301, and which act was the fullest exoneration of the Jews from the charges brought against them.

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* *Vide* Madox's Hist. Exch. vol. i. p. 778-9.

† Hakluyt, vol. i. p. 133.

and expatriation of the Jews, A.D. 1290.

Unfounded allegations against them of depreciating the coinage.

But whilst these rigorous measures were directed against the Jews, the reign of Edward was marked by some concessions to other foreign traders. The king, at the outset of his reign, confirmed to the merchants

Concessions to merchants of Germany,

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* Stat. 27 Edw. I.

of Germany, occupying the Teutonic Hall in London, all the privileges and liberties granted to them by his father. In 1297, he entered into a treaty with Guy, Earl of Flanders, whereby the subjects of Flanders were permitted to carry wool and other merchandize from the king's dominions in England, Ireland, *Scotland*, and Wales, as freely as the Lombard or even as the English merchants. In 1300, the merchants of Bordeaux complaining of difficulties in selling and stowing their wines in London,* the king directed a writ to the mayor and sheriffs, in consequence of which, very large houses with cellars were erected on the river's bank, on the place to this day called "the Vintry." In 1302, he gave to the merchants of his Duchy of Aquitaine, a charter, licensing them to import wines and other merchandize into all his dominions, and to sell them in wholesale, either to the foreigners or natives. The privileges granted to these merchants were considered so advantageous that all the foreign merchants in England desired to participate in them, and offered to pay additional duties, in consideration of obtaining a charter whereby their privileges should be clearly defined. The king, accordingly, on the 1st February, 1303, granted a general charter to all foreign merchants, of which the following is the substance:—

Flanders,

Bordeaux,

and Aquitaine.

The privileges thus granted extended to all foreign merchants by charter, A.D. 1303.

The foreign merchants' charter. A.D. 1303.

"The King, &c. being desirous that the merchants of Germany, France, Spain, Portugal, Navarre, Lombardy, Tuscany, Provence, Catalonia, Aquitaine, Thoulouse, Quercy, Flanders, Brabant, and all other foreign countries resorting to his dominions, may enjoy tranquillity and ample security, establishes the following regulations, to be observed by himself and his heirs for ever:

"All foreign merchants may come safely into England and our other dominions with all kinds of merchandize, free from any demands for murage, pontage, and pavage.*

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* Wine, up to this period, was sold on board ships lying in different parts of the river (*vide* Fitz-Stephen).

"They may sell, by wholesale only, to our subjects, and also to foreigners, in all the cities, burghs, and market-towns of our dominions; and they may also retail spices and the wares called mercery, as formerly.

"After paying the due customs, they may export to any country not at war with us, whatever they bring into our dominions or purchase in them, except wine, which must not be carried out of our dominions without our special licence.

"They may reside, and keep their goods, in any of our cities, burghs, and towns, as they shall agree with the owners of houses.

"Every contract for merchandize shall be firm and stable, after the earnest penny is given and accepted by the contracting parties; but if any dispute shall arise, it shall be determined by the customs of the fair or town where the contract was made.

"We promise that we will make no prise,† nor arrest or detention on account of prise, upon their merchandize or goods, upon any occasion, against their will, without first paying the price which they may get from others, and that no price or valuation shall be set upon their goods by us.

"We order that all bailiffs and officers of fairs, cities, burghs, and market-towns, on hearing the complaint of the merchants, shall do justice without delay according to the merchant law; and in case of delay, even though the merchant recover his damage, we will punish the officer or bailiff; and this we grant that speedy justice may be done to strangers.

"In all pleas between a merchant and any other person whatever, except in cases of capital crimes, one half of the jury shall consist of the men of the place, and the other half of foreign merchants, if as many can be found in the place.‡

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* *Murage*, a duty for upholding the walls of a town; *Pontage*, for making or repairing bridges; *Pavage*, for paving streets or highways.

† *Prisage* was an ancient right claimed by the Crown of England of taking two tuns of wine from every ship importing twenty tuns or upwards, one from before, and one from behind the mast. The 2*s*. duty in lieu of this prisage on wine was paid to the king's butler, and was, in consequence, termed "butlerage." The prisage duties were not legally abolished until 49 Geo. III. though the citizens of London were exempted from them by charter 1 Edw. III. The Lord Mayor of London has, from time immemorial, claimed to serve as the king's principal butler at a coronation. In Ireland the family of Boteler (or Butler) had an hereditary grant of the prisage.

‡ This clause of King Edward's Charter appears to have been the foundation of what subsequently became a law of England applicable to all foreigners in all cases.

"We ordain that our weight shall be kept in every fair and town; that the weigher shall show the buyer and seller that the beam and scales are fair, and that there shall be only one weight and measure in our dominions, and that they be stamped with our standard mark.

"A faithful and prudent man, residing in London, shall be appointed justiciary for the foreign merchants, before whom they shall plead specially, and recover their debts speedily, according to the merchant law, if the mayor and sheriffs neglect or delay their causes.

"In consideration of these liberties and the remission of our prisage, the merchants, conjointly and severally, for themselves and all others of their countries, have unanimously agreed to pay to us and our heirs, within forty days after landing their goods, for

"Every ton of wine imported	besides the old custom.	£0	2	0
Every sack of wool exported		0	3	4
Every last of hides exported		0	13	4
Every 300 wool-fells exported		0	3	4
Every scarlet cloth or cloth dyed in grain		0	2	0
Every cloth dyed partly in grain		0	1	6
Every cloth without grain		0	1	0
Every hundredweight of wax		0	1	0

and for fine goods, such as stuffs of Tarsus, silk, cindal, seta (probably satin), and also horses,* and other animals, corn and other articles not enumerated, a duty on importation of three pennies in the pound of their value, according to their invoice, or their oaths, if they have no invoice; also for every article, not enumerated, upon exportation, three pennies in the pound of their value, besides the former dues.

"Foreign merchants may sell wool to other foreign merchants within our dominions without paying any duty; and after they have paid custom in one port of our dominions for their goods, they shall not be liable to pay it in any other part.

"Henceforth no exactive prise, loan, or burthen of any kind shall ever be imposed upon the merchants or their goods."†

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* High prices were paid for foreign horses by English knights. They were brought from Flanders, Lombardy, Spain, and Sicily. It is by the admixture of these breeds that English horses have been brought to their present state of perfection.

† Rymer's Fœdera, vol. iv. p. 361. The above is a summary, rather than an absolute translation, of the text of the Charter.

This charter—the first charter of foreign trade ever granted in this country—was probably more especially necessary in consequence of the persecutions to which the Jews had been subjected at an earlier period of the reign, and the harsh treatment which foreign merchants had previously met with in conducting their trade in London. The enumeration of countries with which trade was carried on at this period is valuable, as showing the extent of the trade; and the enumeration of articles, as showing its character. Wool, cloth, hides, and wax seem still to have been our principal articles of exportation, and wine, silks, and fine goods our principal articles of import. The value of this charter to the foreign merchant must have been immense, considering his previous unsettled position and the peculiar privileges which had been secured by the citizens of London in the various charters granted by previous kings. It may be, indeed, that one inducement to grant this charter was the feeling of King Edward I. towards the citizens of London, whose franchises he seized into his own hands in the twelfth year of his reign, appointing a custos, who held the authority of mayor for a period of twelve or fourteen years, when the Charter was restored.

Necessity for, and value of, this charter,

As a necessary corollary to this charter, a table of weights and measures was made up by authority, and published with the statute 31 Edw. I., and "the "Mayor of London and other citizens, in obedience "to the king's order, caused a scale to be made for "the weighing of wool."*

Edward II., having married a daughter of the king of France, commenced his reign by giving permission to the merchants of that kingdom to come to England with money and merchandize, and

Temp. EDWARD II.

Privileges granted to the merchants of France, A.D. 1308.

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* Madox's Hist. Exch. vol. i. p. 782.

after transacting their business, to return with their goods, and horses, and even money, notwithstanding the laws of the previous reign prohibiting the exportation of coin. The king of France solicited his son-in-law to remit in favour of the French merchants, and especially those of Amiens, the new duty of 3*d.* in the pound imposed on the value of foreign goods. But the king answered, "that the duty had been "granted in his father's time, in a full parliament, and "at the desire of the foreign merchants themselves, in "consideration of liberties and immunities from which "they had reaped great advantages, and that he could "not remit it without the advice of parliament." The king of France appears at this time to have been peculiarly anxious to encourage manufactures at Lisle, and other places in the northern part of France, and he begged King Edward to induce his subjects, and, if necessary, to compel them, to attend the fairs at Lisle and St. Omer's, and to hold their wool-staple there; but the king wrote in return from Berwick (16th July, 1314), that as the matter concerned all the merchants of his kingdom, and many other of his subjects, he could give no final answer, but would take advice upon it. In the year succeeding, the king called an assembly of prudent and experienced English merchants to deliberate with the parliament at Lincoln on this subject.

Other privileges sought and refused.

Character of London trade exemplified by the case of the *Little Edward,* A.D. 1315;

In the year 1315, an event occurred in connexion with the trade of London which is noticeable as showing the character of its early commerce. A vessel called the *Little Edward*, lying upon the ground at low water, near Margate, was attacked and seized by the French (on the ground that she was Flemish property), who took her over to Calais. She is described "as a vessel belonging to the port of "London, owned and commanded by John Brand,

" citizen and merchant of London, loaded with a cargo " of wool from London for Antwerp, owned by three " merchants of the Hanse * of Germany, who had lived " in England in the enjoyment of the ancient privi- " leges granted by preceding kings." It would seem from this that the Londoners had now acquired some shipping, and were carrying on not only dealings for themselves as merchants, but a carrying trade for the great confederacy of German and other merchants resident in London. The *Little Edward* was valued at 40*l.* sterling, and her cargo (consisting of 120 sarplars, or half-sacks of wool) at 1,200*l.*, or 10*l.* per sarplar. She is the first trading vessel of the Port of which we appear to have an account by name.

by that of the Genoese dromund;

The large value of a ship's cargo at this time is fixed by another occurrence of the same period. The harvest of 1315 was a failure in England, and the nation was afflicted with a famine, which raised the price of provisions above the reach of persons even in middling circumstances. At this time a great dromund of Genoa, laden with corn, oil, honey, and other provisions for England, was attacked in the Downs by a fleet of vessels, which carried her into Calais. King Edward applied to the King of France and others to bring back this ship, the loss of so large a cargo of provisions being, in a time of famine, a national calamity. Compensation was claimed for ship and cargo to the extent of 5,716*l.* 12*s.* sterling: a sum in those days of very large amount.

and by the application of the conscription to the citizens.

The reign of Edward II., which was a reign of internal commotion, warfare, and disturbance, can scarcely have been supposed to have been very favourable to commerce; yet trade undoubtedly prospered; and judging from the circumstance of London having, on the occasion of a general conscription, been required to provide five times more men than any other city, we must conclude that its relative wealth and influence had risen to a very high ascendancy.

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* This is said to have been the first occasion on which the Easterling and German merchants were so designated. This would appear to be the first occasion, also, of a national dispute respecting the right to seize a neutral vessel laden with a cargo belonging to a belligerent.

Temp. Edward III.

Incorporation of the livery companies of London, A.D. 1327.

Encouragement to foreign merchants

The reign of Edward III. has been described as "the great dawn of the fine arts and of commerce," in this country. One of the first acts of this monarch was to incorporate trading societies in London, composed exclusively of English merchants. In the first year of his reign he gave birth to three of those great trading fraternities, which from generally assuming a distinctive dress or livery, came to be denominated Livery Companies; and the three first incorporated—the Goldsmiths, the Merchant Tailors, and the Skinners*—define pretty tangibly what were at that period generally regarded as the most important domestic trades of England.† At the commencement of this reign the foreign merchants, in consequence probably of the wars in which England

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* The "Merchant Tailors" were not merely cutters of cloth, but importers of and dealers in that article. They also supplied everything relating to the lining of armour, and, perhaps, caparisons and horse-furniture. The business of a "Skinner" at this period was of equal importance. Furs of all descriptions were much more largely used than at later periods, when they became superseded by velvets and other more agreeable articles of apparel. Furred winter garments were commonly worn by all classes, from the time of the Saxons to that of Elizabeth, and the superior orders vied with each other in the choiceness and richness of the furs upon their robes, gowns, hoods, and tippets. Furs were also used for bed-coverlets, as is shown by a bequest of Thomas Mussenden, Esq., in 1402, who left to his wife "one bed covered with ermine." In remote days there were, of course, many more animals in England which afforded furs than at a period when the country became more populated.

† Of the twelve great City companies, the Fishmongers was the only company which received a charter prior to 1 Edw. III. The Fishmongers received a charter 17 Edw. I., though their charter of incorporation does not date till 37 Edw. III. The dates at which the first charters were granted to the twelve companies are as follows:—

Fishmongers . . .	17 Edw. I.	Drapers . .	38 Edw. III.
Goldsmiths . . .	1 Edw. III.	Vintners . .	38 Edw. III.
Skinners	1 Edw. III.	Mercers . .	17 Rich. II.
Merchant Tailors .	1 Edw. III.	Haberdashers	26 Hen. VI.
Grocers	27 Edw. III.	Ironmongers .	3 Edw. IV.
Salters	37 Edw. III.	Clothworkers .	20 Edw. IV.

was engaged with her neighbours, had withdrawn themselves almost altogether from the kingdom. In order to bring them back, the king, in April 1332, published a confirmation of the charter given by his grandfather to the foreign merchants in 1303; and in the following year he ordered the sheriffs to make proclamation that foreign merchants should not be abridged of any of their privileges on account of the renewal of the war with Scotland. At the same period the king, availing himself of discontents among the manufacturers of Flanders, held out invitations to them to transport themselves to England. The first person who thereupon removed to this country to carry on his business, was by name John Kempe, a weaver of woollen cloth, whom, together with his apprentices and servants, the king took under his protection. The king also held out temptations and encouragement to dyers and fullers willing to settle in the kingdom, and there is no doubt that very valuable results followed to the woollen trade of England, and especially in the manufacture of the finer description of cloths. Soon after their settlement in London, the foreign cloth weavers were maltreated and threatened by a mob, but the king ordered proclamation to be made by the sheriffs that no one should do any injury to the foreigners under pain of imprisonment.

and manufacturers; especially weavers, dyers, and fullers,

A.D. 1344.

A struggle was now arising between the foreign and the English trader, and the commercial policy of the reign was in consequence continually varying, sometimes leaning towards foreign merchants, sometimes discouraging them, and endeavouring to place the export trade of the kingdom in the hands of the natives. These fluctuations of policy were also influenced by the foreign wars in which Edward was perpetually engaged, and by his various treaties and

Struggle between the foreign and English traders.

arrangements alternately with France and Flanders. Had the king settled himself down quietly to promote the best interests of his subjects, the English might have become, in the course of his reign, the greatest manufacturing and commercial people of the time, so greatly were they impressed with the value of trade, and so anxious were they to take the commerce of the nation into their own hands.*

Commercial advantages secured in this reign.

By directing the attention of his own subjects to manufacturing industry, Edward laid the foundation of future advantages to the nation, although the immediate effect may have been detrimental to foreign commerce, by reducing the export of the raw material and its re-import as a manufactured article. It was complained that the shipping in English ports was reduced during this reign;† but this complaint appears to have been directed against the king on account of his impressment of trading vessels to transport his troops, and the real fact seems to have been that the London merchants of the period possessed more shipping than their ancestors.

Trade now the established qualification of citizenship.

By the creation of the Livery Companies, trade also became the established, as it was the natural quali-

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* A curious illustration of the growing preference for commerce even amongst the highest citizens is afforded by the City archives. Amongst other modes of raising soldiers and supplies for the French war, the king issued a writ to the sheriffs of London, commanding them to require every citizen possessed of a tenement of the value of 40*l.* per annum to take upon himself the order of knighthood. He evidently anticipated by this means either to get knights for his army, or money in the shape of fines for non-service. But the citizens, preferring trade to knighthood, resisted this order, on the ground that their tenure was not by knight-service but by free burgage;[a] a plea which was too well founded not to be acquiesced in. As showing the importance of the citizens of London in this reign, it may be mentioned that, although they had thus declared themselves burghers and not knights, Edward the Black Prince wrote a letter to the Mayor, Aldermen, and Common Council of the City, informing them of his victory at Poictiers, and describing the battle. The letter is still extant amongst the City records.

† *Vide* Hume's Hist. Eng. vol. iii. p. 512.

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[a] Free burgage tenure limited those who held it to the defence of their walls. Knighthood engaged them to the king for foreign service.

fication of citizenship; for it is obvious that, except where individuals unite for self-defence, the very essence of civic association is trade.

Temp. RICHARD II. A.D. 1377.

An occurrence at the commencement of the reign of Richard II. tends to show very forcibly the greatly increased consequence of the London merchant. John Mercer, a merchant of Perth,* who traded with France, when returning home from that country in 1377, was driven by stress of weather on the coast of England, and was seized and confined in the Castle of Scarborough, until an order from court effected his discharge. His son, to avenge the injury, collected a fleet of Scotch, French, and Spanish vessels, with which he cruised before Scarborough and made many captures. At this time the navy of England would appear to have been very deficient; and the Duke of Lancaster, who governed the kingdom in the minority of his nephew, appears to have been unable to attack Mercer's fleet. Therefore, John Philpot, an opulent citizen and alderman of London, took upon himself to collect vessels in the Thames, to arm them with a thousand men, and send them to sea in search of Mercer, whom they took, together with his prizes and fifteen Spanish vessels, his consorts, all richly loaded. By this enterprise, Philpot got much envy and ill-will amongst the nobles and military men of the kingdom; and he was called and questioned on the subject in the King's Council; but he obtained much applause from his fellow citizens, who elected him lord mayor at the next election. The occurrence altogether affords a striking proof of the wealth and personal influence of an individual merchant, who could undertake and execute an enterprise of so material a character.†

Sir John Philpot, citizen and alderman of London, defends English commerce from aggression.

* After the loss of Berwick, Perth was for some time the principal port of Scotland.

† Sir John Philpot was a Kentish man. He was a member of the Grocers'

The citizens of London loan money to the King.

Another illustration of the growing importance of the citizens is to be found in the demands now made upon them for loans to the sovereign. Previous to the reign of Edward III. the kings of England had borrowed money of their clergy, but they now found their best source of supply among the citizens of London, who to a single loan in the first year of this reign contributed 5,000*l.* In the later years of his reign, Richard II. made applications for these loans so frequently, that at last the citizens refused compliance, which led him to seize their charter, and declare their privileges forfeited. It was this arbitrary conduct that lost Richard the affection of the Londoners, who invited Henry of Lancaster to the City immediately he landed, and supplied him with the major part of 20,000 men to suppress a formidable insurrection against him, and to maintain his authority.

Increasing jealousy of foreigners.

The jealousy of foreigners among the people rose to a great height during this reign.* It is recorded by Walsingham, that in the year 1379, an opulent Genoese merchant came to England with a proposal to make Southampton a depôt for all the Oriental goods which the Genoese were wont to carry to Flanders, Normandy, and Brittany. He applied

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Company. His residence was on the site of Philpot-lane, which is named after him. He was lord mayor in 1378. It is probable that he was a considerable shipowner, as at a subsequent date he undertook to convey the English army into Brittany. Fuller speaks of him as "the scourge of the Scots, the fright of the French, "the delight of the Commons, the darling of the merchants, and the hatred of "some envious lords, but who was at his death lamented and afterwards beloved "of ALL, when his memory was restored to its due esteem." He died in 1384, and was buried in Christ Church, Newgate-street.

* It was greatly inflamed by Richard's marriage with Anne of Bohemia, which was exceedingly unpopular. One of the charges which led to the banishment of the king's favourite, Robert de Vere, Earl of Oxford and Duke of Ireland, was that he had intermarried with a lady who came over in her train, and who was called "a Bohemian of low extraction." In reality she was neither, for she was a daughter of the Count of Luxemburg, and one of the most lovely and accomplished women of her time.

to the king for the privilege of storing his goods in the Castle of Southampton; and he held out very sound commercial inducements for the privilege, declaring that he could reduce the price of pepper to 4*d.* per pound, and other spiceries in proportion. But the English merchants are said to have regarded this scheme with great jealousy, as likely to be prejudicial to their own trade; and the Genoese merchant was murdered in the streets of London by assassins who were said to have been hired for the purpose.

The Genoese merchant murdered, A.D. 1379.

Temp. HENRY IV. A.D. 1400.

Complaints and recriminations of the Londoners and Hanse-Town merchants.

Henry IV. being so deeply indebted to the citizens of London for his throne, could do no less than concede their demands. They commenced by complaining of the treatment which London merchants received in foreign ports, especially in Lubeck, Rostock, Stralsand and Wismar. The king remonstrated with the grand master of Prussia, and even went so far as to warn the merchants of the Hanse * that if they did not secure good treatment for English merchants abroad, he would annul their charters here. Despite these remonstrances and warnings, the feuds between English merchants and seamen and those of Prussia and the Hanse towns continued throughout this reign, and complaints were loud on both sides. The merchants of the Hanse towns complained of the infringement of their chartered privileges by the communities of London; the English merchants on the other hand complained that the Hanse merchants in their own towns abroad refused to hold any intercourse with English merchants, or to buy cloth from them. They accused them also of passing off as their own the goods of people not belonging to the Hanse, in order to evade payment of the proper duties. There were, no doubt, substantial grounds for these complaints on both sides. The national and foreign trades were in active competition, and bad feeling began to be the consequence. The facts show, however, that London merchants had, at this time, acquired the conduct of their own trade abroad, in ports with which a century previous the whole trade was conducted by an association of foreign merchants.

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* The Easterling merchants of the Steelyard had assumed, or had acquired, the name of the merchants of the Hanse towns, from the commencement of the fourteenth century (*vide ante*, p. 28).

An English trade between London and Lisbon.

A London merchant (Thomas Faulconer, lord mayor in 1414), made a complaint at this time of the seizure of a vessel and cargo of 200 tons owned by him, by the King of Portugal, at Lisbon, on a false information. Her cargo was oil, wax, and other merchandize (wine not mentioned). Thomas Faulconer claimed damage to the extent of 6,000 crowns of gold, which King Henry demanded from the King of Portugal.*

The trade of London described by a cotemporary writer.

In a cotemporary writing, London is described at this time to be "preferred to any city of the "west for population, opulence, and luxury. It is "seated on the river Thames, which," says the writer, "by the advantage of its tide, daily re-"ceives and despatches trading vessels from and "to various countries."

Advancing consequence of the merchant citizens.

Throughout this reign we may trace indications of the prosperous and improving condition of London. So valuable were the privileges of the citizens, and so much had the interests of trade advanced, that Henry IV. was compelled to place a restriction upon apprenticeship. The statute 7 Hen. IV. c. 17, recites that there is a want of husbandry labourers, by reason of the peasantry having been bound to learn trades, and that the nobility are impoverished thereby, and it enacts accordingly that none shall put out their children as apprentices who are not possessed of land to the amount of 20*s.* per annum.* In this reign the citizens of London gave another proof of their advanced consequence by erecting their Guildhall. The streets also, under the direction of the lord mayor, were lighted at night by public lanterns; from which we may conclude that the internal police was under tolerably good regulation.

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* Rymer's Fœdera, vol. viii. p. 727.

Temp. Henry V. A.D. 1413.

The short reign of Henry V. was one of splendid conquest, but the interests of commerce were disregarded. When peace was restored trade began to revive; and a curious record has come down to us, in a politico-commercial poem, called, "The Libell of "English Policie," of the condition of commerce in Europe in the earlier years of the reign of King Henry VI.

Trade of Europe, temp. Henry VI.

Spain.

Spain exported figs, raisins, bastard wine, dates, liquorice, Seville oil, grain, Castile soap, wax, iron, wool, wadmole, skins of goats and kids, saffron, and quicksilver. Of these wool was the chief article. The trade of Spain was chiefly with Bruges, the great Flemish emporium; and it would appear that the English bought the major part of the productions of Spain either at Bruges itself, or at other places in Flanders and Brabant.

Portugal.

Portugal exported wine, wax, grain, figs, raisins, honey, cordovan, dates, salt, hides, &c. England had considerable intercourse with Portugal direct.

Prussia.

Prussia exported beer, bacon,osmunds, copper, steel, bowstaves, peltry, pitch, tar, boards, flax, Cologne thread, fustian, canvass, cards, buckram, and also silver, obtained from Bohemia and Hungary.

Genoa.

The Genoese, in great carracks, imported into

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* "They did not foresee," says Hume, "how much the increase of commerce "would increase the value of estates." "These absurd limitations," he adds, "proceeded from a desire of promoting husbandry, which, however, is never more "effectually encouraged than by the increase of manufactures" (Hume, vol. iii. pp. 318 and 425).

England cloth of gold, silk, black pepper, woad in great abundance, wool, oil, wood-ashes, cotton, alum, and gold for paying the balances. They took in return, wool, and woollen cloths of all colours.

Venice.

The Venetians and Florentines imported into England, in large gallies, all kinds of spiceries and groceries, sweet wines, apes, and other foreign animals, and many trifling articles of luxury. In return they received wool, cloth, and tin. The balance appears to have been in their favour, for the author is displeased that—

"Thei bere the gold out of this lond,
And sowketh the thrifte out of our hond,
As the waspe sowketh hony of the be."

The Venetians were also dealers in the exchanges, and lent money at interest. There appeared to be some jealousy of them on the part of British merchants.

Brabant and Zealand.

Brabant and Zealand exported madder, woad, garlick, onions, and salt fish. In the marts of Brabant were also sold the merchandise of France, Burgundy, Cologne, Cambray, and Hainault, brought in carts overland. The English at this time are said to have bought more in the marts of Brabant, Flanders, and Zealand than all other nations.

Ireland.

Ireland exported hides, wool, salmon, hake, herrings, linen, and the skins of various animals, such as martens, otters, squirrels, hares, rabbits, sheep, kids, and foxes. The abundant fertility and excellent harbours of Ireland are noted.

Scotland.

Scotland exported wool and hides, chiefly to Flanders, from which she imported mercery, haberdashery, cart-wheels, and barrows.

Bretagne.

Bretagne exported wines, salt, and canvas; but the trade between England and that country was in an unsatisfactory condition, in consequence of piracies said to have been committed by the people of St. Malo. For the better encouragement of commerce, a treaty was entered into in 1440, between King Henry and the Duke of Bretagne, under which the commanders of vessels fitted out in the ports of either country were obliged to find security not to commit depredations on the subjects of the other power.

Northern Europe.

A trade was carried on between the port of Bristol and Iceland — stock-fish being the principal article imported, and corn, cloth, wine, ale, and salt, being the exportations.* This trade seems to have been principally carried on by two Englishmen, who had obtained appointments from Rome to bishoprics in Iceland, but who, "being unable to go so far," employed the master of an English vessel to "inspect their bishopric as deputy bishop." † Both bishops were in some way connected with John Weston, a stock-fishmonger in London; and there would seem to have been, at least, suspicion of schemes to carry on an illicit trade with Norway and Denmark, under cover of this trade with Iceland, and the authority of the bishops.

Laws affecting foreign merchants.

In 1439, Parliament passed a strong law against "merchant strangers," ‡ prohibiting them from buying and selling with each other in England, and enforcing a previous law, obliging them to live under the survey of "hosts," appointed by the magistrates, and under whose inspection they were to do all their business. The same Act gave some facilities to native trade, allowing the exportation of butter and cheese, without licence. It would appear that a strong party were very anxious, at this time, to restrict the trade of foreigners to the merchandize of the country from which they came, but the king would not consent to this proposal.

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* Before the discovery of America, Iceland appears to have been resorted to for fish, as Newfoundland has been since.

† It would seem from this that ecclesiastics still evaded the law of Edward III. which prohibited them from engaging in commerce (*vide ante*, p. 20, note).

‡ 18 Hen. VI. c. 3.

The king and his advisers, indeed, appear to have better understood the true interests of trade than the Commons. In 1433, the Parliament petitioned the king—*i. e.*, passed a Bill—to give additional force to the Acts of Henry IV. against merchant strangers. The king refused his assent to this measure, as he did also to another, proposing, "That "such persons as shall have their goods taken by the "merchants of Hans in their ports, may have their "remedy by action-at-law in London, against the "Hans merchants residing in that city."

Eminent merchants of this era.

The de la Poles.

We have some records of this period concerning merchants of high repute. In the reign of Edward III., William de la Pole, a merchant of Ravensrod, or Ravenspur, in Yorkshire, opened a trade at Kingston-upon-Hull, for which town he obtained a grant of the customs from the king. Upon Hull being incorporated, he was elected its first mayor. He founded the monastery of St. Michael, near the town, and having acquired the confidence of the sovereign, he was employed in embassies along with the first men of the kingdom, who were directed by his knowledge of business. William de la Pole having lent King Edward a large sum of money (upwards of 18,000*l.*), was made by the king second Baron of the Exchequer (no doubt with a view to enable himself to pay the debt), and he established himself in London, where Stow describes him to have been a merchant. His son Michael, in the
A.D. 1383. following reign, became Lord Chancellor, and was created Earl of Suffolk upon the extinction of the
A.D. 1386. family of Ufford, who had previously held that title. Michael de la Pole appears to have inherited the wisdom of his father, and to have been a profound statesman; but, being the son of a merchant, and bred to business, he was envied in his station by the

old nobility, who planned his ruin, and very soon compassed it by an impeachment. He died in exile in Paris (A.D. 1388). In the reign of Henry VI. we find his grandson, the Marquis of Suffolk, still carrying on trade, and obtaining the king's licence for shipping 2,000 sacks of Norfolk wool to the best market, "according to the direction of his judgment."

Richard Whittington.

WHITTINGTON must not be forgotten, upon whose history some light has recently been thrown by an industrious antiquary.* He was the third son of Sir William Whittington, of Pauntley, in the county of Gloucester, who appears to have fallen into indifferent circumstances, and whose widow married a second time Sir Thomas de Berkeley, of Cubberley, where she died in 1373. Richard Whittington was born in 1350, and, at an early age, came to London to seek his fortune. He was apprenticed to one Hugh Fitzwarren, a mercer (who appears also to have been a Gloucestershire man). Being disgusted with the drudgery of apprenticeship, he essayed to run away, but "turned again," to his own great advantage, on the approach of night, and on hearing the sound of Bow bells † whilst resting himself on the stone cross at the foot of Highgate Hill.

His cat.

The story of the cat, which laid the foundation of Whittington's good fortune, is known to every English child; and it is pleasant to think that it has been lately rescued from ridicule, and that tradition in this, as in other cases, is more to be relied on than is often allowed.‡ Whittington married

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* *Vide* "The Model Merchant of the Middle Ages," by the Rev. S. Lysons, M.A. Rector of Rodmarten, Gloucestershire. London, 1860.

† At the sound of Bow bell at curfew, the 'prentices and others were wont to leave off their day's work. An old rhyme shows that they complained of "its late ringing."

‡ Mr. Lysons, in his "Model Merchant," discusses the whole question very fully and fairly, and establishes the probability of the truth of the story of the cat: "1st. From the ancient and generally received tradition. 2d. From the

Alice Fitzwarren, his master's daughter, and, no doubt, succeeded to his trade. He became a most eminent mercer. The issue rolls show that he supplied the wedding *trousseau* of the Princess Blanche, King Henry IV.'s eldest daughter, on her marriage with the son of the King of the Romans; and also the wedding dresses, pearls, and cloth of gold, for the marriage of the Princess Philippa, the King's daughter, Queen of Sweden and Norway, with the King of the Romans. He was also the Court banker of the day, and lent large sums of money to the sovereigns, especially to Henry V., "for maintaining the siege of Harfleur."

His mayoralties.

Whittington, it is said, was "*thrice* Lord Mayor of London." In fact, he filled the office of Lord Mayor of London *four* times, and was the first Mayor to whom the prefix of Lord was granted. He was first appointed Mayor by the Crown, 1397 (20 Rich. II.), "in the place of Adam Baunne, who had gone the waye of all fleshe." He was elected Mayor in the year following, 1398; and he was again elected in 1406. (8 Hen. IV.). In 1416 he was elected Member of Parliament for the City of London, and he was again elected Lord Mayor in 1419 (7 Hen. V.)*

His popularity.

The popularity of Whittington amongst his fellow-citizens appears to have arisen as well from his public

"scarcity and value of domestic cats at that period. 3d. From its not being a "solitary instance of a fortune made by such means. And 4th. From the ancient "portraits and statues of Whittington, in association with a cat, some of which "may be traced back to the times and orders of his own executors." Cats were first brought from Egypt, where divine honours were paid to them, to Cyprus; and from thence they got to England. That cats were highly prized in England shortly anterior to Whittington's period, is shown by one of the charges against the Knights Templars, in 1309, "that they worshipped a certain cat which was present in the congregation;" and that very large sums of money have been paid for this animal in different countries, is established by all the annals of commerce. So late as 1535, Don Diego Almagro, the companion of Pizarro, paid 600 pieces of eight for the first Spanish cat that was introduced into Chili.

* A MS. memoir, in the possession of the Mercers' Company, records that "the "Company attended the cavalcade of Whittington, chosen Mayor of London for "the *fourth* time."

acts as from his private liberality. He was one of the most strenuous supporters of the native trade, and a vigorous opponent of the admission of foreigners to the freedom of the City. He also made himself very popular by proceedings which he instituted against the Brewers' Company "for selling dear ale;" alleging that they "had ridden into the country, and forestalled the market to raise its price." The Brewers upon this information were convicted and fined 20*l*., and were ordered to be kept in the Chamberlain's custody until they should pay it, or find security;* to which "extraordinary and arbitrary "proceedings of Richard Whittington against the "Company" the Brewers greatly objected, and refused "to make feasts or breakfasts, or to provide "their yearly livery during his mayoralty, in con- "sequence of the grievous and great charges which "Richard Whittington imposed upon them."†

His munificence.

Whittington, in fact, was a people's champion, as well as a royal banker; and he lent his purse, as well as his influence, to raise the people in the social scale. During his lifetime he erected conduits for the people at Cripplegate and near Billingsgate; he founded a library for the Grey Friars' monastery in Newgate Street, and furnished it with books, which, at that time, before the introduction of the art of printing, were extremely costly; he caused the compilation of the *Liber Albus*, a book of great importance, in which were entered "the laudable customs not written, but wont to be observed in the City of London;" and he contributed largely towards the erection of the library at Guildhall. He restored the Hospital of St. Bartholomew, Smithfield, which had fallen into decay, and, by his instructions on his death-bed, he provided for the rebuilding of the prison of Newgate, which was so pestiferous a place as to cause many deaths; and for the erection of a noble set of almshouses at Highgate, which bear his name. It is stated of him that, in his last mayoralty, King Henry V. and Queen Catherine dined with him in the City, when Whittington caused a fire to be lighted of precious woods, mixed with cinnamon and other spices, and that, taking all the bonds given him by the King for money lent, amounting to no less than 60,000*l.*, he threw them into the fire and burnt them; thereby freeing his Sovereign from his debts. The King, astonished at such a proceeding, exclaimed, "Surely, never had king such a subject;" to which Whittington, with courtly gallantry, replied, "Surely, sire, never had subject such a king."

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* Herbert's Hist. Lon. Liv. Companies, pp. 56, 104.
† Ibid. p. 76.

His residence.

Whittington lived in a house in Hart Street, "four doors from Mark Lane, up a gateway." The residence, which was a very handsome one, existed till a recent period. He died in 1427, aged 73. He was buried in the church of St. Michael, Paternoster Royal, to which he had been a liberal benefactor, and where his wife had been previously interred. He had no children; and the bulk of his estates he left to his executors, to be laid out in purposes of charity and in completing the works he had commenced. He left his collar of SS[†] and some silver plate to his brother "Robert, Lord of Pauntley, and his heires."

Whittington was in every way in advance of his age, and a valuable example to successive generations. The liberal views which he introduced into trade, no doubt did much to promote legitimate commerce, as well as to show English merchants the superior advantages of an honest and liberal mode of trading.

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[*] The collar of SS worn by the Lord Mayor of London, was first worn in Whittington's time, having been introduced by King Henry IV. about the year 1407. The principal features of the insignia are the red rose and the portcullis. Whittington in an old picture is painted in this collar.

William Canyngs of Bristol.

William Canyngs (whose memory has been revived by Chatterton) was at this time a famous merchant of Bristol, of which he was five times mayor, and where he founded the church of St. Mary Redcliff, according to Camden, the most magnificent parish church in England. Canyngs appears to have carried on a large trade with the Baltic, where he had "factors," who were recommended by the King of England to the good offices of the Grand Master of Prussia and the magistrates of Dantzic, as "factors of our beloved and honourable merchant, "William Canyngs." Canyngs, in the year 1450, obtained letters from the King of Denmark authorising him to load certain vessels with lawful English merchandize for Iceland and Finmark, to take in return fish and other merchandize, and to make as many voyages as he should think proper during a limited term of two years. The trade with Iceland and Finmark was prohibited by an English Act of Parliament, but King Henry, considering the good services rendered by Canyngs as mayor of Bristol, gave him leave to trade in conformity with the letters of the King of Denmark. Canyngs is said to have possessed ships of 400, 500, and even 900 tons (?) burden, and it has been conjectured that these vessels were built in the Baltic, and used by him for the transport of timber therefrom.*

John Taverner of Hull.

John Taverner, of Kingston-upon-Hull, a mariner and merchant there, built, during this reign, a great carrack, which he called the *Grace Dieu.* The king granted Taverner the privilege of trading from the ports of London, Southampton, Hull, and Sandwich direct to Italy, in consideration of the great size of his ship. This appears to indicate that large vessels had not hitherto been built in England.

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* That large vessels were built in the Baltic at this period is unquestionable. The King of Sweden at this time owned a trading vessel of 1,000 tons burden, called "the King's Barge," which he sent to England, in 1455, with a request that she might be permitted to trade, and reload with English merchandize, which was granted, provided the due customs were paid. The King of Scotland also at this time owned a very large ship, called "a Carvel." It appears to have traded with Flanders.

Jacques Cœur of Bourges.

Jacques Cœur, of Bourges, was at this time the great merchant of France. He is said to have employed 300 factors to manage his commerce, which extended to the Turks and Persians of the East, and the Saracens of Africa. His exports consisted chiefly of woollen cloths, linens, and paper, then the principal manufactures of France, and his returns were silks, spiceries, &c. He was treasurer (argentier) to the King of France, and had the control of the precious metals within the realm, in which he also dealt. He was deprived of his property in France in 1453, and died at Cyprus in the service of the Pope three years afterwards.*

The Medici.

The commerce of Florence and Italy was largely in the hands of the Medici, a race of successive eminent merchants, and the ancestors of many families of sovereign princes. Cosmo de Medici was only equalled in opulence and importance by Jacques Cœur. In every part of Europe he had houses established for conducting his commerce, and he carried on so large a trade in money, that he may be described as the banker of Europe. So great was his monetary power, that when Naples and Venice combined against Florence, he deprived them of resources for carrying on the war, merely by calling in the vast sums due to him by those states. The money lent through one of his agents to King Edward IV., amounting to 120,000 crowns, contributed in a great measure to support that monarch in his contest with the House of Lancaster. Cosmo died 1st of August, 1464.

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* The history of Jacques Cœur is involved in mystery. Nothing remains of him but memorials of his greatness in his native town, where the Hotel de Ville, originally his private residence, still attests the magnificence in which he must have lived; and displays on its balustrades, in Gothic characters of stone, his brave, yet punning motto, "A vaillants Cœurs rien impossible."

Arrest of Genoese merchants in London.

Fabyan, who was an Alderman and Sheriff of London, relates, in his Chronicle, that in 1438 all the Genoese merchants in London were arrested, imprisoned, and condemned to pay 6,000 marks. The cause assigned was the injury done in the Levant to a merchant of Bristol, named Sturmyn, whose vessel had been seized on the pretence that she had on board growing plants of pepper and other spices, proposed to be propagated in England. It is probable that Sturmyn had infringed other trading regulations of the ports with which he traded, and that the story of the spice plants was only his own account of the transaction. But the record is valuable as showing that there was an English trade with the Levant in this reign. It is probable that the affair concerning Sturmyn led to the treaty entered into with the Genoese in 1460, of which one article was that the advantages proposed should be reciprocal, and that the misconduct of one individual should not break the treaty.

Trade of the Levant with London.

The trade of the Levant with London must at this time have been considerable, for we find the metropolis well supplied with the productions of Italy. In an account preserved by the Grocers' Company of the pageant on the occasion of the arrival of Henry VI. in England, on his return from being crowned King of France (A.D. 1432), there are the particulars of a great conduit, erected between Grocers' and Mercers' Halls, representing " a grove of such " foreign fruits as were peculiar to a grocer, and in " the midst of it three WELLS (in allusion to the name " of the Lord Mayor, John Wells, alderman and " grocer), whose waters, at the king's presence, as if "miraculously, changed to wine." Lydgate, who has commemorated the ceremony in a long poem, describes the fruits in the grove. There were

> "Oranges, almondys, and the pomegranade,
> Lymons, dates, there colours fresh and glade,
> Pepyns, quynces, chandrellys to disport
> And the pom cedre, corageous to recomfort:
> 'Eke othere fruits, which that more comown be,
> And other manye ful faire and fresh to se."

English pilgrimages to Spain.

During this reign the English, who appear always to have possessed the love of travel, acquired a fashion of making pilgrimages to the shrine of St. James of Compostella. The rage for this pilgrimage became greatest about 1428, when permits were granted by the king for carrying sixty-three cargoes of pilgrims, consisting of 3,000 persons, with the money necessary for their charges and devotional offerings. This passage-trade to Spain appears to have centered chiefly at Southampton, from which, in 1434, we find a vessel called the *Mary* fitted to carry as many as 100 pilgrims. Only two vessels sailed in that year direct from London. They had cargoes of eighty and sixty persons each. Most of the vessels made two passages in the course of the season. In 1445 the shipowners, who found the trade profitable, fitted out vessels capable of carrying 200 passengers each. *

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* St. Iago de Compostella, the chief town of Gallicia, is sufficiently near to the coast to be an agreeable, without being a very laborious, pilgrimage for those who resort to that province, being very little farther from its ports than Canterbury from Dover or Margate. "Its squares and churches," says an old writer, "are very magnificent; and it has a number of monasteries for both "sexes. It is pretended that the body of the Apostle St. James is buried here, "which draws large numbers of pilgrims to his shrine. They walk in procession to the church, and visit his wooden image, which stands on the great "altar, and is illuminated with forty or fifty wax candles. They kiss it three "times with a very respectful devotion, and then put their hats on its head. In "the church are thirty silver lamps, always lighted, and six chandeliers of silver, "five feet high. The poorer pilgrims are received into a hospital, built for the "purpose, which stands near the church." Gibbon says, "Of all the holy romances, "that of the Apostle St. James can alone, by its singular extravagance, deserve "to be mentioned. From a peaceful fisherman of the lake of Gennesareth, he

That the commercial policy of Henry VI. did not satisfy the Londoners, would appear by the dissatisfied political feeling which the citizens evidenced towards the close of the reign of that monarch, and by the extreme avidity with which they embraced and supported the family of York. Those, in fact, who had placed the house of Lancaster upon the throne were the principal supporters of the prince who sought to supersede that dynasty.

Temp. Edw. IV. A.D. 1461.

More restrictions on foreign merchants.

In accordance with the desire of the citizens, the reign of Edward IV. commenced with the re-establishment of measures of restriction upon foreign commerce, and "protection" in favour of the home trade. Foreigners were prohibited from buying or shipping wool except from the northern counties, where it was to be shipped at Newcastle only.* And no English merchant was allowed to ship any goods, outward or homeward, in foreign vessels, unless sufficient freight could not be found in English shipping. By the same Act the importation of corn, except from Wales, Ireland, and the islands belonging to England, was prohibited, whenever wheat did not exceed 6*s.* 8*d.*, rye 4*s.*, and barley 3*s.* per quarter. This measure is said to have been especially directed against the Hanse.

Importation of foreign manufactures prohibited.

The male and female artificers of London having reported that they were grievously injured by the importation of foreign articles of quality inferior to those made by them, the parliament prohibited the importation or sale of all the following articles, the

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"was transformed into a valorous knight, who charged at the head of the Spanish "chivalry in their battles against the Moors. The gravest historians have celebrated his exploits, the miraculous shrine of Compostella displayed his power, "and the sword of a military order (the knights of S. Jago), assisted by the terrors "of the Inquisition, was sufficient to remove every objection of profane criticism." "His stupendous metamorphosis was performed in the ninth century."—*Gibbon's Rome* (*Bohn's Ed.*), 77.

* 3 Edw. IV. c. 1.

list of which is interesting, as showing what goods were then in request, and what manufactures were then established in London :—

- Woollen Caps.
- ,, Cloths.
- Laces.
- Corses.
- Ribands.
- Fringes of Silk or Thread.
- Laces of Thread.
- Silk Twined.*
- —— Embroidered.
- Laces of Gold.
- Tires of Silk or Gold.
- Stirrups.
- Harness belonging to Saddles.
- Spurs.
- Bosses for Bridles.
- Andirons.
- Gridirons.
- Locks.
- Hammers.
- Pinions.
- Firetongs.
- Dripping Pans.
- Dice.
- Tennis Balls.
- Points.
- Purses.
- Gloves.
- Girdles.
- Harness for Girdles.
- Latten.
- Steel.
- Tin, or Alkinine.
- Articles made of Tanned Leather.
- Tawed Furs.
- Buskins.
- Shoes.
- Galoches or Corks.
- Knives.
- Daggers.
- Wood-Knives.
- Bodkins.
- Shears.
- Scissors.
- Razors.
- Sheaths.
- Playing Cards.
- Pins.
- Pattens.
- Pack Needles.
- Any Painted Ware.
- Saucers.
- Caskets.
- Rings of Copper or Gilt.
- Chafing Dishes.
- Hanging Candlesticks.
- Chafing Bells.
- Sacring Bells.
- Rings for Curtains.
- Ladles.
- Scummers.
- Counterfeit Basins.
- Ewers.
- Hats.
- Brushes.
- Cards for Wool.
- Iron Wire.

Billingsgate again made the Hythe of London.

About the same period the trade, which had been taken from Billingsgate to Queen-hithe,† was partially restored to Billingsgate—no doubt at the desire of the citizens, and on account, as was alleged, of the delays and inconveniences occasioned by passing the drawbridge at London Bridge.‡

Retaliatory measures,

The immediate consequence of these enactments was the withdrawal of many foreign merchants from London. Retaliatory measures were also taken by the

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* At a later period of this reign the restrictions on silk manufactured articles ceased to be operative, and there was such an inundation of silks from Cologne, that the English manufacturers were thrown idle ; a clear proof that their produce was inferior and dearer than the foreign article. In consideration of their distress, foreign silk goods were prohibited by parliament for four years.

† *Vide ante*, p. 19.

‡ Queen-hithe being above bridge, near to the Steelyard Wharf, was probably the most convenient "hythe" or port for foreign merchants ; whilst Billingsgate, and its vicinity, the ancient seat of trade below the bridge, was more especially the seat of the domestic business. We can understand from this, that the restoration of the trade to Billingsgate was a concession to the native London merchants.

Duke of Burgundy, who published an ordinance, "never to be repealed," banishing all English woollen cloth and woollen yarn out of his dominions; which he thought would at once prove ruinous to English trade. The English parliament retaliated by prohibiting the importation of any produce of the Duke's dominions except provisions; but the merchants of the Teutonic guild were excepted from the operation of this statute; which had, therefore, only the effect of giving them an entire monopoly of the trade with Burgundy. Of course this state of things between two neighbouring commercial nations could not be of long continuance. Accordingly, in 1467, a new treaty of commerce was entered into between King Edward and the Duke of Burgundy, by which free trade between the countries was restored.

and restoration of free trade.

Temp. RICH. III. A.D. 1483.

Renewed complaints against foreigners,

Richard III., having obtained his elevation to the throne very mainly through the influence of the Londoners, was compelled in his turn to make them all the concessions they required. Their demands and complaints were directed against "the merchants of Italy, including the Catalans," whom they accused of keeping cellars and warehouses in London, in which they packed and mixed their goods, and kept them till they got great prices for them. It was alleged also, that, contrary to the law, they sold by retail; bought English commodities and sold them again in England, and sent part of the money arising from the sales to their own country by exchange; that they bought up wool, and employed people to make it into cloth on their own account; that they employed none but their own country-people as workmen or servants, whereby the king's subjects were driven into idleness and beggary; and that after making fortunes in England

and legislation against them.

they retired to other countries to enjoy them. In order to remedy these evils the parliament enacted that all Italian merchants, including Catalans, not being denizens, should sell their goods, and invest the proceeds in English commodities before May 1, 1485; and that all goods arriving after Easter, 1484, should be sold within eight months after their arrival, and all then unsold should be carried abroad within two months more under pain of forfeiture. They were prohibited from selling woollen cloth in England, and from employing people to convert wool into cloth for their account; and they were debarred from having any concern in the clothing trade. They were further limited to the sale of wares by wholesale, and only in the place of their residence. A dawning attention to the interests of literature prompted an exception from the rigour of this Act in favour of importers and writers and printers of books. (1 Rd. III. c. 8.) Another Act of Parliament enforced and extended the prohibition of the former reign on the importation of articles of foreign manufacture.

The "Bowyers" having complained of "a seditious confederacy" of the Lombards, who had "raised the price of bow-staves from 40*s.* to 8*l.* per hundred, and obliged them to take good and bad together," Parliament enacted that no Venetian or other merchant should be permitted to import merchandize without bringing ten good bow-staves for every butt of malmsey, and the bow-staves should be sold only to natives of the kingdom.

Of fifteen Acts passed by the single parliament held by Richard III., seven were for the regulation of commerce and manufactures. They were all much in the same spirit, imposing impolitic restrictions on foreigners, under the idea of promoting English trade.

Temp. Hen. VII. A. D. 1485.

The first parliament called by Henry VII. appears to have been inclined to deal with commercial questions in a fairer spirit, though "native" influence was still predominant. Observing that in consequence of the Acts of Edward IV. a number of foreign merchants had obtained letters and acts of denization, whereby they were put on a footing with natives in regard to payment of customs, they enacted that all foreigners should pay the same duties, whether denizens or not. They confirmed the prohibitory Act of Edward IV., and for the encouragement of the navy, and the unemployed seamen of the country, they passed a Navigation Act prohibiting the importation of any wine of Guienne or Gascoigne, or woad of Thoulouse, except in vessels belonging to England, Ireland, or Wales, navigated principally by natives of England, Wales, Ireland, or Calais. They repealed the Act of Richard respecting Italian merchants; and very soon after his accession, Henry issued orders to all his subjects to receive the merchants of France in a friendly manner.

Legislation.

An Act of the third year of King Henry VII. gives a good picture of the position of the inland trade of England. The magistrates of London in order to oblige people to resort to the City for their purchases, had made an ordinance that no citizen should carry goods to any fair or market out of the City. The people interested in the fairs of Salisbury, Bristol, Oxford, Cambridge, Nottingham, Ely, Coventry, and other places, were alarmed, and represented to parliament the great hardship of being obliged to travel to London to procure chalices, books, vestments, and other church ornaments, and also victuals for the time of Lent, linen cloth, woollen cloth, brass, pewter, bedding, osmund, iron, flax, wax, and other

Inland traffic, how conducted.

necessaries. Parliament accordingly annulled the London ordinance, and the citizens were permitted to take their goods for sale to the fairs and markets in every part of England.

New Commercial treaties.

A very few years after the accession of Henry VII. England began to experience, for the first time for nearly a century, the full benefits of peace, internal tranquillity, and a stable government. Commerce began in consequence to seek outlets. In 1490, a valuable treaty was concluded at Copenhagen between England and Denmark (England being represented by a doctor of laws, a herald, and two merchants of Lynn). By this treaty the trade of Iceland was thrown open, and the English were permitted to purchase fresh fish to salt in the Northern Seas. English vessels were also permitted freely to go "through the Belts," on payment of a toll, and English merchants were assured of their liberties and properties wherever they might settle in the Danish dominion. As there were no reciprocity clauses, it has been concluded that the whole Danish trade at this time was in English hands. In the same year a very important treaty was concluded "by a doctor of laws and an alderman of London," with Lorenzo de Medici, for the regulation of the English trade with Florence; whereby the English obtained advantages conceded to them in a spirit of liberality much beyond the feeling of the age. In 1494, Henry VII. appointed two Italians (Benedict and Laurence Bonnice) to be English consuls at Pisa.

Interruption of the trade with Flanders, A.D. 1493,

Our trade with the Netherlands was, however, interrupted in 1493, in consequence of the encouragement which the Duchess Dowager of Burgundy had given Perkin Warbeck. King Henry was so provoked as to banish the Flemings out of England, whereupon the Arch-Duke banished the English out of Flanders, which gave the Steelyard merchants a great advantage, by enabling them to import Flemish merchandize into England from their own Hanse towns. This was very prejudicial to the London merchant-adventurers whose trade was direct with the Netherlands, and their apprentices and journeymen rose, and by the aid of a mob, attacked and rifled the warehouses in the Steelyard. The riot, however, was soon suppressed, and the rioters punished. The suspension of trade between England and the Netherlands continued much longer than it ought to have done, but the trade being of importance to all parties, it was re-opened in 1496, when a new treaty of commerce and alliance was concluded between Henry and the Arch-Duke Philip.

and its consequences.

In the year following (1497) we have the first parliamentary recognition of English merchants. It occurs in an Act of Parliament, 12 Hen. VII. c. 6, entitled, "Every Englishman shall have free recourse "to certain foreign marts, without exaction to be "taken by any English fraternity." This Act commences by reciting that the merchant-adventurers residing in different parts of England, out of London, trade to beyond sea, as well into Spain, Portugal, Bretagne, Ireland, Normandy, France, Seville, Venice, Dantzic, Eastland, Frizeland, and many other ports, there to buy, sell, and make their exchanges according to the laws and customs of those ports; and that of late the fellowship of the Mercers and other merchants and adventurers, dwelling and being free within the City of London, by confederacy amongst themselves, for their own singular profit, contrary to every Englishman's liberty, to all law, reason, charity, right, and conscience, have made an ordinance amongst themselves, to the prejudice of all other Englishmen, that no Englishmen resorting to the

English merchants first recognized by Parliament, A. D. 1497.

coasts of Flanders, Holland, Zealand, Brabant, and other places under the Duke of Burgundy, shall buy or sell there without compounding and paying fine to the said fellowship of London merchants. This freedom fine, which they state had formerly been an old noble sterling (6*s*. 8*d*.) they had increased to 40*l*. sterling. And parliament now interfered, and fixed the fine at ten marks, or 6*l*. 13*s*. 4*d*.

By this law we get to know the extent of the foreign commerce of the English merchants, and the steps by which the Society of Merchant-Adventurers had risen to so much importance as to be able to increase their freedom fines from 6*s*. 8*d*. to 40*l*. It will also be observed that this Act did, by implication, establish the right of the Society of Merchant-Adventurers of London to a monopoly of trade with the places indicated. As to this right, great conflicts arose, and continued for nearly two centuries after, the London merchant-adventurers claiming that all merchants should belong to their fraternity, others disputing the claim, and many companies and fraternities claiming exemption from it. Another fraternity, "the merchants trading in woollen cloth," styled themselves "the Merchant-Adventurers of *England*," and obtained a charter, "confirming all their former privileges," which led to almost endless confusion and disputes. At times the disputes between the different companies, English and foreign, ran so high, that the trade between England and the Netherlands was greatly prejudiced, and ultimately the Emperor Maximilian, and his grandson, the Emperor Charles V. were obliged to make declaration that the English should enjoy all the commerce of the Netherlands, as stipulated in 1495, before any of these charters received existence.

The reign of Henry VII. was distinguished for the discovery of the New World by Columbus, of which England might have had the honour and advantage.* As it was, her share in it was limited to the discovery of Newfoundland, by John Cabot (or Cabota). Cabot and his sons were citizens of Venice, settled at Bristol, and (although the date has been disputed) there is now no doubt that John Cabot and his son Sebastian, sailed from Bristol in May, 1497, and made their discovery on the 24th June following. Their main object appears to have been the visionary one of discovering a Northwest passage to the Indies and China (Cathay). After Cabot's first voyage, Henry VII. was so engaged in his wars with Scotland, that he had no inclination to prosecute further voyages of discovery, and Sebastian Cabot was accordingly obliged to enter into the service of Spain. The first record we have of a fishery on the banks of Newfoundland, is in 1517 (twenty years later). It was then carried on by Portuguese.

Discovery of America.

Cabot's expedition to Newfoundland.

English vessels appear to have increased considerably in tonnage during this reign; a circumstance, which in that immediately succeeding (Henry VIII.), led to the construction of several large vessels for the naval service of the country. The first of these large vessels was a ship of 1,000 tons, called the *Regent*, built by order of the king, at Woolwich. This ship was lost in 1573, in a battle before Brest, with a French ship called the *Cordelier*. The latter was set on fire, and both ships were consumed with the larger proportion of their crews, the

Temp. Hen. VIII.

Construction of large ships.

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* "It was by accident only that Henry VII. had not a considerable share in "the great naval discoveries by which the age was distinguished. Columbus, after "meeting many repulses from the Courts of Portugal and Spain, sent his brother "Bartholomew into England, in order to explain his projects to Henry. The king "invited Columbus to England, but his brother, in returning to Spain, being taken "by pirates, was detained on his voyage, and Columbus, meanwhile, having "obtained the countenance of Isabella, was supplied with a small fleet, and "happily executed his enterprise." (Hume, vol. iii. p. 427).

Regent losing 700, and the *Cordelier* (it was estimated) 900 men. To repair this grievous loss, King Henry had another and a still larger vessel built, which was called the *Henry Grace de Dieu.*

Fortresses on the Thames.

In the year of the battle thus recorded, and probably in anticipation of a French invasion, King Henry VIII. had a platform of cannon erected at Gravesend, and another on the Essex shore opposite, where Tilbury Fort was afterwards built.

"Evil May Day" A.D. 1518.

The jealousy of the Londoners against foreigners rose at the commencement of Henry VIII.'s reign to greater extent than ever. The "May Day" of 1518—long afterwards remembered as "Evil May Day"—witnessed a fearful riot committed by the London apprentices and others, and directed entirely against foreign residents. The complaints of the rioters were that "there were such numbers "of foreigners employed as artificers that the "English could get no work; that the merchant "strangers brought in all silk, cloths of gold, wine, "iron, &c., and that no man, almost, buyeth of an "Englishman; that they also export so much wool, "tin, and lead, that English adventurers can have "no living; that they compass round the city, in "Southwark, Westminster, Temple Bar, Holborn, "St. Martins (le Grand), St. John's Street, Aldgate, "Tower Hill, and St. Catherine's; that they forestall "the market, so that no good thing cometh to the "market, which are the causes that Englishmen "want and starve whilst foreigners live in abundance "and plenty; that the Dutchmen bring over iron, "timber, and leather, ready manufactured, and nails, "locks, baskets, cupboards, stools, tables, chests, "girdles, saddles, and printed cloths." These complaints throw considerable light on the commercial condition of London at the time. The pretended crimes of the foreigners, probably arose from their working cheaper than the people of the country.

Importation of articles of luxury.

The trade of England began at this time to be directed to articles of luxury. An Act of 1512 refers to the importation of "cloth of gold and "cloth of silver, vaudekin, velvet, damask, satin, "sarcenet, tariton, camlet, and other cloths of silk, "and of silk and gold and silver." But there were other articles of still more value to the nation now being introduced. At the commencement of the reign, it has been said that "Queen Katherine could "not have obtained a salad for her dinner in all Eng-"land;" but the trade with Holland and Flanders now led to the supply of carrots, turnips, and other edible roots, and of gardeners to cultivate them in this country. In 1524, we learn from an old distich that

"Turkeys, carp, hops, and beer,
Came into England in one year."

Cultivation of fruits and plants.

Carp were first imported by Leonard Mascal (the king's gardener), of Plumstead Place, near Hurstpierpoint, Sussex (a moated house, now in the possession of the Earl of Chichester). He was greatly given to travel, and it is probable that he also brought over hops, which are said to have come first from Artois. The liquor made with hops appears to have been called "beer," as contradistinguished from the more ancient Saxon beverage, called "ale." Sundry other fruits and plants were first cultivated in England about this time, such as apricots, melons, gooseberries, currants (brought from the island of Zante), and garden roots of different sorts. Cherries, of a species not previously known in England, were imported about 1540 from Flanders, and planted in Kent with such success, that an orchard of only thirty-two acres, produced in one year as much fruit as yielded 1,000*l*. Probably the novelty of the fruit made people at first give high prices for it.

strictive legislation on home productions.

The increase of the woollen manufacture was found during this reign to give rise to so great a demand for wool, as to lead to a practice of diverting lands from tillage to the support of sheep, which led to great enhancement of the price of corn, cattle, wool, pigs, geese, hens, chickens, eggs, &c. For remedy of this grievance, it was enacted that "none "should keep above 2,400 sheep (exclusive of lambs), "at any one time, except it be on his own land of "inheritance; and that no man should hold above "two farms, in the parish of one of which he was "obliged to reside." (25 Hen. VIII. c. 13). The city of Worcester, and the towns of Evesham, Droitwich, Kidderminster, and Bromsgrove, having represented that they were injured by persons dwelling in the villages about those towns, who not only engrossed farms, but carried on the business of clothmakers, to the great depopulation of the city and town, it was also enacted "that no person within "Worcestershire shall make cloth but the proper "inhabitants of the said city and towns, excepting "persons who make cloths solely for their own and "family's wearing." (25 Hen. VIII. c. 18.) All this was of course most detrimental to the true interests of commerce, which is to facilitate and cheapen production and manufacture, so that the merchant may export at a price which enables him to undersell foreign competitors.

Trade with the Levant,

According to Hakluyt ("Voyages," vol. ii. p. 96), from about the year 1511 to 1534, "divers tall ships of London, Southampton, and Bristol," had a large trade with Sicily, Candia, and Chio, and sometimes to Cyprus, Tripoli, and Barutti, in Syria. The exports were woollen cloths and calf-skins (hides), and the imports silks, camlets, rhubarb, malmsey, muscadel and other wines, oil, cotton, wool, Turkey carpets, gall, and Indian spices. In 1530, Simon Harris, of London, merchant, was appointed by the king to be consul of the English merchants at Candia; and in the year following, a foreigner was appointed to be consul at Chio, and parts adjacent in the Archipelago. In the year 1535, a ship of 300 tons, from London, went on the Levant voyage, which usually occupied a year, and returned in eleven months. She took out 100 persons, who were settled by the English merchants as factors for them at the different places of trade.

Guinea and Barbary.

About the same period, the English began to trade to the Guinea coast, and some of their voyages are said to have been most successful. One ship brought home above 100lb. weight of gold-dust, besides elephant's teeth, &c. In 1537, a trade was also established with the coast of Barbary, the English exporting linen and woollen cloths, coral, amber, and jet, and receiving back sugar, dates, almonds, and molasses.

Newfoundland fishery.

In 1536, King Henry encouraged certain merchants to send out two ships on discovery to the north coast of America. They visited Cape Breton and Newfoundland, but being in distress for want of provisions, returned home. This voyage, however, gave rise to a settlement in Newfoundland by Mr. Hoar, a London merchant, with a view to the development of the fishery on the banks. Unfortunately for Mr. Hoar, his effort met with ill success.

Voyage to Brazil.

In 1540, we have the first record of a voyage from London to Brazil.

Advance of England in this reign.

During the reign of Henry VIII. there was, no doubt, a great accession to the wealth of the country. The woollen trade flourished, as is shown by its introduction into Halifax in 1537, and other manufactures greatly developed themselves, as is shown by statutes of 34 and 37 Hen. VIII., regulating pin manufacturing. The first statute relating to bankrupts was passed 34 Hen. VIII., showing that there was a necessity for dealing with merchants' estates. The towns were subjected to great improvements, and various Acts of Parliament were passed regulating the repairs of buildings, &c., amongst which may be especially mentioned an Act (35 Hen. VIII. c. 9) for the embankment of the district now known as Wapping, which appears formerly to have been a marsh. The streets of London, especially the Strand to Charing Cross, and High Holborn, from the Fleet to Holborn Bars, were ordered to be paved with stone; and by a statute (35 Hen. VIII. c. 12) the streets and lanes in Cripplegate, St. Clement Danes, Shoreditch, Westminster, and other then outlying parts of London were ordered to be paved by those who had lands or tenements adjoining, "in like manner and form as "the streets of the City of London be paved, with "causeys and channels in the midst of the same "streets." English commerce, however, appears still to have been quite in its childhood, though, if we may believe Voltaire, it was superior to that of the French, for writing of this period, he says:—

> "The French, though possessed of harbours both on the ocean and Mediterranean, were yet without a navy; and though immersed in luxury, had only a few coarse manufactures. The Jews, Genoese, Venetians, Portuguese, Flemings, Dutch, and English traded successively for us, we being ignorant even of the first principles of commerce."

Temp. Edw. VI. A.D. 1552.

At the commencement of the reign of Edward VI. the Londoners appear to have been very anxious to extend their trade. One Thomas Barnaby, a merchant, made a proposal to the Court that every city company should provide and send out annually at least one ship, laden with commodities proper to their own trade or manufacture. This proposal was not adopted, but steps were taken to release the foreign trade of London by breaking the monopoly of the Steelyard merchants. Against this monopoly the English Society of Merchant-Adventurers made strong representations in 1552, to the king's Privy Council. They complained that the Steelyard merchants were exempt from Aliens' duties; that they traded as a body, and therefore prevented competition for the produce of the country, and kept down the price of wool; that, having the command of the foreign markets, they prevented other merchants from trading successfully in their towns—in proof of which it was alleged, that in the previous year the Steelyard merchants had exported 44,000 woollen cloths to 1,100 exported by all the English merchants. It was also represented that their whole trade was carried on in foreign bottoms, to the great detriment of our marine. Upon mature consideration of these and like reasons the Privy Council annulled and made void all the charters of the Steelyard, and resumed their privileges and franchises, "saving, however, to the said merchants "all such liberty of coming into the realm and "trafficing, in as ample manner as any other merchants have within the same."

Abolition of the exclusive privileges of the Steelyard merchants.

It is stated by Rapin that the regent of Flanders made strong representations on behalf of the exclusive privileges of the Steelyard merchants; and King Edward the Sixth's Diary, published by Bishop Burnet, shows that ambassadors were sent to him from Hamburg and Lubeck, "to speak on behalf of the Stilliard merchants," but the king told them he must abide by the decision of his council. In consequence of the reversal, the trade with Flanders immediately went into the hands of English merchants in London, who, in the same year, shipped off 40,000 cloths for Flanders, where they had only shipped 1,100 in the year preceding.

Formation of the Russia Company. A.D. 1553.

Another proceeding which marked this reign, was the formation of the first English company of shareholders for trading purposes of which we have any record. It was formed by merchants of London, together with some noblemen, who were emulous of the fame and desirous of sharing in the profits acquired by the Portuguese and Spanish discoverers of unknown lands. The immediate object of the Company was a trade with China by the north-west; the capital was 6,000*l.* in 240 shares of 25*l.* each; and Sebastian Cabot,* who was a principal adviser of the undertaking, was appointed the first governor. Three vessels were fitted out at Deptford for the expedition, and were placed under the command of Sir Hugh Willoughby. The result to two of the vessels was very disastrous. After being tossed about by tempestuous weather on the Coast of Spitzbergen, they were driven by the approach of winter into an obscure harbour in Russian Lapland, called Arcina-Keca, where the crews of the two vessels, being unprovided for the severity of the winter, were frozen to death; and where some Laplanders, in the summer following, found Sir Hugh Willoughby sitting in his cabin, dead, with his diary and letters on the table before him. The result of the voyage to the third vessel, called the Bonaventure, was very different. She ran into the bay of St. Nicholas, in the White Sea, where no ship had ever been before, and finding that the people residing there, under the protection of a small fort called the Castle of Archangel, were rich in furs, hemp, and other valuable commodities, Richard Chancellor, the commander, with the assistance of the governor of the fort, travelled on sledges from the fort to Moscow, where he obtained from the Czar, on behalf of his company, the privilege of trading to the Coast. Thus was founded the Russia Company, which afterwards rose to great importance; and which, although disappointed in the hope of arriving at China by a northern passage, made the useful and profitable discovery of a trade in the White Sea—a discovery, moreover, which subsequently led the way to the English whale-fishery at Spitzbergen.*

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* Sebastian Cabot was at this time in the employment of the Crown, Edward VI. having settled a pension upon him as "Grand Pilot of England." He was the authority of the time on all questions of navigation. He died 1577, aged 80.

Retail Trade of London.

During the reigns of the Tudor kings much wealth was accumulated in London by commerce; but it was engrossed by comparatively a few individuals. The list of celebrated merchants which has descended to us from the time of Whittington to the time of Gresham, probably comprehends almost all of the great native traders of the City. There was no middle class of tradesmen, and, indeed, no middle class at all; but in the reign of Edward VI. a new class of dealers sprang up in the form of the shopkeepers. Up to this reign, as Stow informs us, there was scarcely such a thing as a shop between Westminster and St. Paul's; but now, all along the line of Ludgate, Fleet Street, and the Strand, shops, presenting great temptation to the eye, began to be opened; and he records, especially, that there were numerous mercery shops most tempting to the fair sex. The retail business, in fact, which had been previously transacted in fairs and markets, on certain specified days of the month or week, now came to be conducted at all times at the dwelling-houses of the traders; a vast convenience for the public, and a strong evidence of the increasing wealth of the country, which afforded a demand for commodities even of luxury, which required to be met by a continuous supply.*

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* In Hakluyt's Voyages (Lond. 1598, p. 413), is printed "The request of an "honest merchant, by letter to a friend of his, to be advised and directed in the "course of killing a whale." The subject at the time no doubt occupied attention, as some of the Russia Company's vessels killed whales near Spitzbergen for the first time in 1597. The Norwegians in early times, and the Biscayans at a later period, were the only whale-fishers.

Temp. Queen MARY.

Advantages to trade from the loss of Calais.

The loss of Calais, in the reign of Queen Mary, although considered a national disaster, was propitious to the trade of London and the realm. Calais had been held by the English for upwards of two hundred years; and, from a very early period, had been made the "staple" port for the English wool trade.† So long as we held Calais,

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* Stow describes the haberdashers' shops to have made a gay show formerly, from the various foreign commodities they were furnished with; "and by pur-"chasing of them," he says, "the people of London, and of other parts of "England, began to expend extravagantly, whereof great complaints were made "amongst the graver sort." There were but few of these milliner's shops in the reign of Edward VI., not more than a dozen in all London; but in 1580, every street from Westminster embraced the business of woollen-drapers, cutlers, upholsterers, glass and earthenware men, perfumers, and various other dealing, eastwards, until the whole town became full of them. They sold, amongst other wares, French and Spanish gloves, and French cloth or frigarde (frieze), Flanders-dyed kersies, daggers, swords, knives, Spanish girdles, painted cruses, dials, tables, cards, balls, glasses, fine earthen pots, saltcellars, spoons, tin dishes, puppets, pennons, ink-horns, toothpicks, silk, and silver buttons. All which "made such "a show in passenger's eyes, that they could not help gazing on and buying "these knicknacks." This great offence a contemporary writer, quoted by Stow, bitterly apostrophises. He "marvels" that "no man taketh heed to it "what number of trifles cometh hither from beyond the seas, that we might either "clean spare, or else make them within our own realm; for the which we either "pay inestimable treasure every year, or else exchange substantial wares and "necessaries for them, for the which we might receive great treasure." The Governments' taking up the same narrow idea was, no doubt, the cause of sumptuary regulations, about which there were so many precepts anciently issued to the Companies and City of London.

† I have forborne, in this historical outline, to enter into all the various details respecting the "Staple." The dissensions were continuous from 1313 downwards; various parties striving to get the staple fixed at different towns in England, and others striving to get it fixed at various places on the Continent, as best suited their interests at different periods. At one time one party succeeded, and at

A.D. 1558.

and continued it as the "staple" port for English trade with the Continent, so long the trade in our principal exports, must have remained a circumscribed monopoly. The result of the loss of Calais was to free the export trade of England from the restriction of that monopoly, and to enable our merchants to select and to open out for themselves new fields of commerce, which appears to have been very consistent with the feeling of the time. The immediate result of the loss of Calais was the nominal removal of the English staple to Bruges, in order to accommodate the manufacturing localities of Flanders; but the ultimate result was the destruction of the "staple" altogether, and the opening out of the trade of London itself, by the operation of an Act passed in the first year of Elizabeth (c. 13), repealing all the former laws which prohibited the importation and exportation of merchandize in any but English ships. By allowing the exportation of our cloth and wool in foreign vessels from the port of London, London, under a free system of trade, was made, in effect, the "staple" mart of a *direct* export trade; a trade precluded by the establishment of the staple at Calais, where the exports of England in English vessels had to be handled and re-shipped into foreign vessels for transport to the places at which the commodities were needed.

Successes of the Russia Company.

Philip and Mary having, in the first year of their reign, granted a charter to the Russia Company, that company, in each succeeding year, sent out new expeditions to Russia, all of which appear to have been attended with success. In 1558, their agent, Mr. Anthony Jenkinson, set on foot a new channel

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another time another. The subject, though not without interest, appeared to me not to be absolutely germane to the purpose of this work, and I have therefore avoided the very elaborate narrative which it would have necessarily involved.

The first Russian Embassy to England.

of trade, through Russia into Persia, for raw silk; sailing down the Volga to Nishni-Novgorod, Casan, and Astracan, and thence across the Caspian Sea to Persia. This voyage he performed seven different times, and the Czar, in return, sent an Ambassador-Extraordinary to the Court of England to promote a friendly correspondence between the Courts. On his voyage, this Ambassador and his retinue had the misfortune to be shipwrecked on the coast of Scotland. On hearing of this disaster the Russia Company despatched a deputation, with a supply of every necessary, to escort his Excellency to London. He was met, twelve miles from the City, by eighty merchants on horseback, who regaled him sumptuously at Highgate, where he rested the night. The next day he was met by Lord Viscount Montague, on the part of the queen, attended by 300 knights and esquires, besides 140 Russia merchants, attended by their servants. They conducted him to Islington, where he was presented with a stately courser, with velvet trappings. On this he mounted, and entered the City at Smithfield Bars, where the Lord Mayor and Aldermen received him, and from thence he rode through the streets with great pomp between the Lord Mayor and Viscount Montague, to his apartments in Gracechurch Street, where many rich presents from the queen awaited him. The whole cost of his journey to London, and of his residence here, was borne by the Russia Company. Mr. Hume conjectures that this was the first intercourse which the Russian empire had with any of the western states of Europe.*

Temp. Queen ELIZABETH.

The success of the Russia Company undoubtedly had a considerable effect in promoting that spirit of enterprise and desire for foreign discovery, which distinguished the reign of Queen Elizabeth. The history of the various voyages and enterprises set on foot and conducted by Frobisher, Davis, Raleigh, Grenville, Sir Francis Drake, and others, during this reign, scarcely belong to the present volume. It may be observed of them, as of most similar voyages of discovery, that their results were rather beneficial to after ages, than either to the promoters themselves or their cotemporaries.

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* At a later period Jenkinson was appointed by Queen Elizabeth to be Ambassador from England to the Czar of Muscovy.

Voyages of Discovery.

The importance acquired by English commerce in the reign of Elizabeth resulted from other causes than the progress of discovery.

Commercial consequence of Antwerp.

The manufacturing industry of Flanders had raised the port of Antwerp to a very high state of commercial consequence. Antwerp had succeeded not only in establishing an import and export trade, but in making herself an emporium; for, to a large extent, the Antwerpians had superseded the Venetians and Genoese in the trade which they had so long carried on between the northern ports of Europe and the Levant. Antwerp now traded with Italy, Cyprus, and Tripoli, sending out English and German products, and importing the productions of those countries, which they sent to England and Germany in return. An old writer says:—

> "In London, at the commencement of the reign of Elizabeth, there were at least one hundred Netherland merchants, who bought all the commodities which the merchants of Italy, Germany, Spain, France, and Eastland (of which nations there were before that time divers famous and notable rich merchants and companies) used to bring into England out of their own country directly."

Antwerp destroyed by the Spaniards

But all the commerce and magnificence of Antwerp, which had not been of long continuance, was destined, during this reign, to be scattered. The persecutions on account of religion, which had occurred in the Spanish Netherlands, under the Duchess of Parma and the Duke of Alva, had driven many fugitives, especially Walloons, to England; but the finishing blow to the commerce of the country was given by the siege and plunder of Antwerp itself. The town was ruined; 3,000 of the inhabitants fell by the sword; 1,500 were burnt and trodden to death, and as many more drowned in the Scheldt. For three days the Spanish soldiery wallowed in the plunder of the city, from which they carried off at least two millions of pistoles; besides which, an incalculable quantity of rich merchandize and furniture was destroyed by fire. The shipping trading to Antwerp was chiefly foreign, and after the bombardment, it never returned to the Scheldt. The manufacturing industry of Flanders and Brabant was thereby dispersed, and about a third part of the merchants and manufacturers who wrought and dealt in silks, damasks, taffeties, bareges, serges, &c., settled in England: England being at that time comparatively ignorant of those manufactures. As a very large proportion of the trade in which Antwerp was engaged concerned England, it is probable that nearly the whole commerce of Antwerp would have settled here, but that foreigners were still subject to double customs, were excluded from the companies, and subjected to national jealousies and other disadvantages. The woollen merchants and manufacturers of Flanders consequently went to Leyden, and the linen trade to Haarlem and Amsterdam. Thus did England and Holland (Protestant nations) triumph by the violence of Catholic Spain, and obtain the wealth and enterprise which that nation insanely expelled from the richest section of her dominions.

A.D. 1585.

Its manufacturing industry dispersed.

Following up the policy initiated in the reign of

Edward VI., Queen Elizabeth not only refused to restore any of the privileges of the merchants of the Hanse towns, but she put other restrictions upon them. The Hanse merchants, in retaliation, put restrictions on English trade in their towns; flattering themselves that the Queen would gladly restore their ancient privileges in England, in order to recover the like privileges for English merchants within the limits of their corporation. But English trade had now assumed too independent a footing to be thus dealt with; and under the advice, it is said, of the expatriated Netherland merchants, Elizabeth determined to order all the German merchants in her dominions to quit England on the day on which the English merchants had been ordered to quit Staden (a Hanse town), and she issued a commission to the Mayor and Sheriffs of London to shut up the Steelyard altogether. This was the close of the Hanseatic influence in England, and it was very shortly afterwards entirely extinguished. On the settlement of numerous Protestant merchants at Hamburgh, that city pushed a commerce in opposition to the Hanseatic towns upon the Baltic; and being better situated for trade, "the Hanse" rapidly declined, leaving only cities, such as Wismar, to attest their former opulence.

Elizabeth expels the Hanse Town merchants and shuts up the Steelyard.

A.D. 1597.

Elizabeth made great efforts to promote an English trade with Turkey and the Levant; and granted letters patent for the establishment of the company of Levant merchants.* Sir Edward Osborne (a lord mayor and merchant of London, and the ancestor of the Dukes of Leeds) was the first governor of the company. On the commence-

The Levant Company established. A.D. 1581.

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* This charter expired in 1588, and was renewed in 1593. It expired again in 1605, and a new company being formed, a charter was granted to it, in perpetuity, by King James I., under the designation of the "Merchants of England trading to the Levant."

ment of this trade with Turkey, the company had great thanks and commendations from the queen and council for the ships they built of so great burden, with many encouragements to go forward. It is said, that the first returns of this trade were in the proportion of three to one. By opening up a direct trade with Turkey and the Levant, England procured all the productions of Greece, Syria, Egypt, Persia, and India, much cheaper than when the trade was wholly in the hands of the Venetians, as it was previously; and being able to supply cloths cheaper than the Venetians could do so at second hand, she soon drove them out of the cloth trade with Turkey. Venice, after this date, only sent one argosy to England, which, with a rich cargo and many passengers, was wrecked on the Isle of Wight in 1587.* It should be mentioned that Elizabeth sent out as English ambassador to Turkey a merchant of the name of William Harkborn, or Harburn. He arranged articles of peace with Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli; and, despite the opposition of the Venetians, established English factories in Turkey, under the authority of a treaty with the Sultan Amurath III. It is recorded that he performed the voyage out in the ship *Susan*, of London, mounting thirty-four guns.

The Spanish Armada. A.D. 1588.

The merchants of London afforded the greatest assistance to the sovereign in protecting the country against the Spanish Armada. The English fleet consisted altogether of 197 vessels. Of these seventy-six were furnished by the Queen; the City of London equipped thirty-eight, and the Society of Merchant-Adventurers of London ten. Various seaports contributed eighty-three smaller vessels. The Spanish vessels (134 in number) were generally much larger than the English; but the latter had a great advantage in sailing, and were consequently able frequently to harass the enemy by the agility of their manœuvres. Throughout this naval campaign the English did not lose one capital ship, nor in the whole above 100 men; whilst the Spaniards lost eighty-one ships and 13,500 soldiers and mariners, besides much treasure.*

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* The reader may be reminded of the passage in "The Merchant of Venice" (Act II. Scene 8):

> "I reasoned with a Frenchman yesterday,
> Who told me—in the narrow seas, that part
> The French and English, there miscarried
> A vessel of our country, richly fraught."

Shakespeare is believed to have written "The Merchant of Venice" in 1594.

Effect of its destruction.

The destruction of the Spanish Armada was not only valuable to England by depriving Spain of the empire of the sea, but it was still more so by obliging the English to apply themselves to improvements in the art of building and equipping ships, and also to the maintenance of a regular navy, which, from this time, became a principal object with the sovereign. From 1590 Queen Elizabeth assigned a regular annual payment for the repairs of her fleet; and in the same year, as is shown by an Act of Jac. I. c. 23, the manufacture of sail-cloth was first introduced into England—a most important contribution to the establishment of maritime power.

First Voyage from England to India. A.D. 1591.

Amid the numerous maritime expeditions of this period, an English ship was reported to have passed round the Cape of Good Hope in 1589. This voyage has not been well established; but, in 1591, a regular voyage to India round the Cape was undertaken in London. The expedition consisted of three ships; but they lost so many men by sickness on the way out, that they were obliged to send one ship home, so that only two vessels proceeded from the Cape. Of these, Capt. Raymond's, which was the principal vessel, parted company in a gale off the Cape, and was never heard of more; the third vessel, Capt. Lancaster's, arrived in India, but met with great misfortunes on her way home by the West Indies, where many of the men perished. This expedition, like most others of the period, partook rather of a privateering than of a commercial character, but it is noticeable as having led the way to the formation of a company to trade to the East Indies.

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* The Spaniards made great efforts to restore their fleet; and fifty years after they were able to send a great armada, consisting of sixty-seven large ships, from Corunna, against the Dutch, who were blockading Dunkirk, and who also overran the Netherlands. This expedition was encountered in the Channel, and afterwards in the Downs, by the Dutch fleet under Van Tromp, who gained an entire victory, and destroyed most of the Spanish ships. This terrible blow, followed by other defeats at sea by the French, entirely broke the naval power of Spain, so that she never recovered till our own time, when her fleet was again destroyed by the English, under Nelson.

The Dutch expeditions, 1595-1598.

The Dutch, in 1595, determined to force their way to India by the same route, and nine merchants of Amsterdam subscribed a capital of 76,000 guilders to send out four ships. They returned in twenty-nine months, flushed with success and big with hope. In 1598, they sent out another expedition with eight ships. They returned home in 1600, laden with cinnamon, pepper, cloves, nutmegs, and mace. From this time the Dutch made regular yearly expeditions, making vast returns of profit; all Europe using spices to a much greater degree than at present.

Formation of a Company for trading to India. A.D. 1600.

The success of the second expedition from Holland impelled the English to form a company for trading to the East Indies. Accordingly, on the 31st December, 1600, the Queen granted a charter to George, Earl of Cumberland, and 215 knights, aldermen, and merchants, that, "at their own charges, they might "set forth one or more voyages to the East Indies;" "to be one body politic and corporate, by the name of "the Governor and Company of Merchants of London "trading into the East Indies." Sir Thomas Smith, alderman of London, was to be the first governor. Their capital appears to have been 72,000*l.* by subscription shares of 50*l.* each.

A.D. 1601.

In the following year, 1601, the company despatched their first fleet, commanded in chief by Capt. James Lancaster, and consisting of one ship of 600 tons, one of 300, two of 200 each, and one of 130, carrying 480 men, and 27,000*l.* in Spanish money and goods, the rest of the 72,000*l.* having been absorbed in the furniture of the ships, artillery, ammunition, provisions, &c. The expedition reached Sumatra, where they loaded some of the ships with pepper; from thence they sailed for the Straits of Malacca, where they captured a Portuguese ship of 900 tons, loaded with calicoes, &c. with which they completed their cargoes. They then sailed to Bantam, where they settled factors, and then, sailing homewards, arrived in the Downs in September, 1603, having made their first voyage prosperously in two years and seven months.

It would appear that the East India Company was a good deal opposed in the outset by the Levant Company, with which it was thought it would interfere. But the opposition, which appears to have been grounded on the usual reasons for the maintenance of a monopoly, entirely failed.

Advance of commerce in the reign of Elizabeth.

Throughout the reign of Elizabeth, the encouragement of trade was one of the main objects of her government; and, despite the ill-judged patents and monopolies which she granted to favourites, many of which she recalled as injurious to trade, such important advances were made in commerce, that her reign may be considered an era in the commercial history of the nation. The general measures of this sovereign were marked, from the outset, by great wisdom and by a sound knowledge of the interests of her people. The extinguishment of the monopoly of the Hanseatic league, the declaration of free trade in shipping, the encouragement afforded to those who were willing to embark in commerce to distant regions, the treaty with Turkey, and the charter to the East India Company, were measures calculated to arouse commercial activity, and excite the enterprise of the nation. The state of affairs in other parts of Europe largely contributed to the success of her measures; and Elizabeth increased her own glory, and the prosperity of her subjects, by the encouragement she afforded to the Netherlanders driven to seek shelter and hospitality within her dominions, and by following their counsel and advice in regard to matters of trade and manufacture.

Increasing importance of London.

The increased importance of the trade of London during this reign is well attested by the necessity for the erection of the Royal Exchange—for which London was indebted to the munificence of one of her greatest merchants. Statistical proof of her importance may, moreover, be found in the annals of the Exchequer, which show that London exported at this time three times as much as all the rest of England put together.* This increase of trade had its corresponding effect in the increase of buildings, especially in the

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* In the "Circle of Commerce," a treatise published by Edward Missenden, Esq. an eminent merchant, in 1623, we have the following account of the Customs of England for the year beginning Christmas, 1612, and ending Christmas, 1613:

	LONDON.			OUTPORTS.			TOTAL.		
	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.	£	s.	d.
Outwards	61,322	16	9	25,471	19	7	86,794	16	2
Inwards	48,250	1	9	13,030	9	9	61,280	11	6
	109,572	18	6	38,502	9	4	148,075	7	8

The Exports of all England for that year, are stated at . .	£2,090,645
The Imports (Silks, Venice Goods, Spanish Linen, Wines, and other Merchandise)	2,141,151

suburbs, which the Queen by two proclamations,* and Parliament by an Act (35 Eliz. c. 6), vainly endeavoured to prevent. The reasons assigned for restricting the size of the City appear at the present day extremely puerile; but in the time of Elizabeth, the principles of political economy were very imperfectly understood, and it is probable that increase of the prices of provisions, consequent on a population rapidly increasing in both number and wealth, may have led to clamours which induced imperfect reasoners to deem these measures of restriction needful.

Ten years afterwards, *i.e.* in 1623 (said to have been an unfavourable year for trade),

The Exports were	£2,320,436
The Imports	2,619,315
The Total Customs' Duties . .	168,222

Showing an increase in the ten years, despite all unfavourable circumstances.

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* A.D. 1580 and 1602.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL.—FROM THE ACCESSION OF KING JAMES I.

Effect of the Union of the Crowns of England and Scotland. A.D. 1603.

THE accession of James of Scotland to the crown of England was a measure valuable to English commerce, as bringing the whole island under one system and closing the most dangerous back-door of the country against France or any foreign enemy. As regards trade, however, the immediate effect was not beneficial to the Scotch. The removal of the court carried away from Scotland the principal nobility and gentry, as well as foreign ministers and strangers, and thereby decreased the demand for both foreign and home products. For a time, the commerce of Scotland, which had never been large, in consequence of her having little to export, was diminished to almost nothing; and this diminution created discontent. For all this, however, ample compensation was afforded by England in other ways, and, ultimately, there has been nothing by which Scotland has profited more largely than by the share she has acquired in English trade.

Policy of James I.

King James at his accession declared himself at "peace with all the world," and called in all the ships of war and privateers which during Elizabeth's reign had been so largely employed against the Spaniards, and had done them so much damage in various quarters of the globe. This measure proved of great advantage to commerce, as it led to the immediate employment of the shipping in a business of the highest consequence to the country. The adventurers who, in the previous reign, had sailed in expeditions of warfare and discovery, now directed their attention to planting and colonizing the countries they visited; and numbers of settlers were taken out to Virginia (by which, at that period, was meant the larger portion of the coast of North America), New England, the Bermudas, and Newfoundland.

Colonization of America.

Companies began to be formed for the purpose of promoting these settlements. The first was established by charter, A.D. 1606, and was called the "South Virginia Company, or the London Adventurers." It had a patent granted to Sir Thomas Gates, Sir George Somers, Edward Wingfield, Esq., Mr. Hakluyt,* and others, for all lands in America between the 34th and 41st degrees of north latitude, comprehending what are now called Maryland, Virginia, and Carolina. This company sent out two ships, carrying Mr. Percy (brother to the Earl of Northumberland), and four of the council of the company, a clergyman, artificers, tools, and ammunition. They landed in Chesapeake Bay, and fortified three miles from the north of the Powhattan, giving their first settlement the name of "James Town," after the king.† Here one hundred men were settled, and this was the first English colony which took root on American soil. The company subsequently (A.D. 1610) obtained an extension of their powers, and were incorporated

Formation of the Virginia Company. A.D. 1606.

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* Mr. Hakluyt, of the Middle Temple, was the industrious compiler of "Hakluyt's Voyages and Discoveries of the English Nation," published in 1598. He was therefore at the time an authority on trade and navigation.

† The "United States Gazetteer" states that "nothing now remains of this town but a few ruins."

as the Virginia Company. Although the first adventurers were far from being gainers, yet the nation subsequently reaped a rich harvest from their enterprize. A second company, called "the Plymouth Adventurers," were empowered to plant what are now called Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New York, and Massachusetts; but they did not plant till some time after.

Discovery of Hudson's Straits,

The spirit of discovery was prosecuted at the same time, being principally directed, as before, to the object of obtaining a direct passage to India. Captain Hudson made several attempts prior to 1610, ending in little besides his giving his name to Hudson's Straits. William Baffin, at the charge of several directors of the Russia Company, penetrated still further in 1616, and gave his name to Baffin's Bay. He reported, that—

and Baffin's Bay. A.D. 1616.

> "Having for three years coasted all the circumference of Davis's Straits, he had found no other than a great bay, and no hope of a passage. But some advantage may be made of the voyage, since there are here plenty of great whales. The same may be pursued, and good store of oil may be made between the middle of July and the last day of August."

Settlement of Ulster.

In 1609 the King proposed to the City of London the establishment of an English settlement in Ulster, then much depopulated. The city accepted the proposal and sent three hundred persons there of all sorts of handicrafts and occupations. The Irish inhabitants were transplanted to Connaught. Coleraine and Londonderry were repeopled, and the lands and fisheries greatly improved. The City of London raised 20,000*l.* for the formation of this new plantation.

Attempted propagation of the Silkworm.

About the same period the King, in imitation of Henry IV. of France, of whom he had a laudably high esteem, endeavoured to promote the propagation of the silkworm in England, and sent circular letters into the counties to promote the planting of mulberry trees, which he procured from the Continent in 1606, with instructions for the breeding and feeding of silkworms.* Experience has proved that silkworms cannot be propagated north of the river Loire; but the royal experiment, although unsuccessful in itself, was not without valuable results in causing a resort to England of silk-throwsters, weavers, and dyers, who were brought over by a Mr. Brulamach by the King's order, and who immediately caused a considerable silk trade to rise up in London.† In the reign of Queen Elizabeth, the first pair of silk stockings known in this country was imported from Spain, and presented by Sir Thomas Gresham to her Majesty. A century afterwards (1681) the English silk trade was said, by Sir Josiah Child, to employ 40,000 people.

Its results.

This manufacture was more rapid in its growth, and greater in its value, on account of the exceedingly increasing trade of the East India Company, who now began to bring large quantities of raw silk from India and China. Mr. Munn, who wrote in 1621, gives the following curious table, showing the

Imports from the East.

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* The king had a mulberry garden planted at Pimlico, in 1609, on what is now the site of Buckingham Palace. Sedley sang its praises, and Dr. King says:

"A princely palace on that space doth rise,
Where Sedley's noble muse found mulberries."

It is interesting to know that the celebrated mulberry tree with which Shakespeare enriched his garden at New Place, and which the Rev. Mr. Gastrell caused to be cut down in 1752, was one of these exotic and, at the period, very rare plants. Probably most of the fine old mulberry trees, of which there are, or were, very many in the gardens around London, have the same origin as Shakespeare's tree. It is well established that Shakespeare's tree was planted with his own hand.

† 1623. "I saw at Mr. Gale's a sample of the satin lately made at Chelsea of "English silkworms, for the Princess of Wales, which was very rich and beau-"tiful." (Thoresby's Diary, vol. ii. p. 372.)

imports of the Company in the year preceding, with the prices in India and England :—

IMPORTS, 1620.	COST ON BOARD SHIP IN INDIA.					SELLING PRICES IN LONDON.				
	s.	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*	*s.*	*d.*	£	*s.*	*d.*
250,000 lb. Pepper . . .	0	2½	26,041	13	4	1	8	208,333	6	8
150,000 lb. Cloves . . .	0	9	5,626	0	0	6	0	45,000	0	0
150,000 lb. Nutmegs . . .	0	4	2,500	0	0	2	6	18,750	0	0
50,000 lb. Mace	0	8	1,666	13	4	6	0	15,000	0	0
200,000 lb. Indigo . . .	1	2	11,666	13	4	5	0	50,000	0	0
107,140 lb. China Raw Silk	7	0	37,499	0	0	20	0	107,140	0	0
50,000 pieces Calico . . .	7	0	15,000	0	0	20	0	50,000	0	0
			100,000	0	0			494,223	6	8

Great increase of the East India Company's trade.

The East India Company at this time had so greatly increased, that, according to the same authority, they employed 10,000 tons of shipping,* 2,500 mariners, 500 ship carpenters, and about 120 factors. England now, instead of importing from Venice, was absolutely exporting Indian goods to Genoa, Leghorn, Marseilles, and even Turkey. It should be mentioned, that it was in this year (1620) that the company established their settlement at Madras, where they had a trade in diamonds, muslins, and chintzes, in return for stockings, haberdashery, gold and silver lace, looking-glasses, drinking-glasses, lead, wines, cider, cheese, hats, stuffs, and ribands.

Treaties of Commerce.

James I., during his reign, entered into many treaties and arrangements for the advancement of British trade; particularly with the Kings of Spain, France, and Denmark, with the Czar of Muscovy, and with the Hollanders. Our trade with Holland, however, was a good deal prejudiced by a circumstance which occurred in 1608. It appears that the art of dyeing and dressing woollen cloths had greatly improved in Holland; and that it had become a custom to send white cloth from England to Holland to be dyed and dressed, and sent back to England for sale. Reflecting on the great profit thereby made by the Hollanders, Alderman Cockayne, and some other London merchants, proposed to the King to undertake the dyeing and dressing of cloths at home, and obtained a patent. The King also issued a proclamation prohibiting the exportation of white cloth from England, and seized the charter of the Merchant Adventurers of London, which empowered them to export it. The Hollanders retaliated by prohibiting the importation of English dyed cloths. Thus was commerce thrown into confusion. Cockayne was disabled from selling his cloths anywhere but at home; and it proved that his cloths were worse dyed, and yet were dearer, than those done in Holland. A great clamour was consequently raised by the weavers and merchants, and, after much controversy, the King, in 1615, found himself obliged to annul Cockayne's patent, and to restore the charter of the Merchant Adventurers.

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* In 1610 this company built the largest merchant ship then known in England. She was of 1,100 tons burden, and was called *The Trades' Increase.* At the same time the King built a ship of war superior in size to any seen in England before: being of 1,400 tons, and carrying 64 cannon. The ships of the East India Company were, in 1615, of the several tonnages of 1,293, 1,100, 1,060, 900, 800, and the rest from 600 down to 150 tons.

Disputes with Holland, arising out of Ald. Cockayne's Patent.

A.D. 1608.

The granting of monopoly patents by the King gave rise to loud complaints. These monopolies were granted, on a large scale, to favourites, for the sole vending or making of certain articles of merchandize or manufacture. In 1610, King James was obliged to revoke these patents by proclamation; but he suffered himself to be drawn into new ones afterwards; and, in 1624, the Parliament was compelled to interfere, and to declare all monopolies of this sort void.

Monopolies granted, revoked, and declared void.

Trade of England during this reign.

An anonymous writer, in the interest of the Levant Company, gives a picture of the trade of England at this period:—

"We trade to Naples, Genoa, Leghorn, Marseilles, Malaga, &c. with only twenty ships, chiefly herrings, and thirty sail more laden with pipe-staves from Ireland.

—"To Portugal and Andalusia we send twenty ships for wines, sugar, fruit, and West Indian drugs.

—"To Bordeaux we send sixty ships and barks for wines.

—"To Hamburgh and Middleburgh, thirty-five ships are sent by our Merchant Adventurers' Company.

—"To Dantzic, Koningsburg, &c. we send yearly about thirty ships, viz. six from London, six from Ipswich, and the rest from Hull, Lynn, and Newcastle, but the Dutch many more.

—"To Norway we send not above five ships, and the Dutch above forty, and great ships too.

—"Our Newcastle coal trade employs 400 sail of ships; viz. 200 for supplying of London, and 200 for the rest of England.

"And besides our own ships, hither, even to the mine's mouth, come all our neighbouring nations with their ships continually, employing their own shipping and mariners. I doubt not whether, if they had such a treasure, they would employ not their own shipping solely therein. The French sail thither in whole fleets of fifty sail together, serving all their ports of Picardie, Normandie, Bretagne, &c. even as far as Rochel and Bordeaux. And the ships of Bremen, Emden, Holland, and Zealand supply those of Flanders, &c., whose shipping is not great, with our coals.

—"Our Iceland fishery employs 120 ships and barks of our own.

—"And the Newfoundland fishery 150 small ships.

—"And our Greenland whale fishery fourteen ships.

—"As for the Bermudas, we know not yet what they will do; and for Virginia, we know not what to do with it; the present profit of these two colonies not employing any store of shipping."

The value of this cotemporary record must be

The King's "counter-blastes" against tobacco.

apparent. That the Bermudas and Virginia were not in a very satisfactory state, may be accounted for by the "counterblastes" continually issued by the king, which much affected those plantations. As early in his reign as 1604, the king laid a tax of six shillings and eightpence a pound on tobacco:[*] declaring that—

> "Whereas tobacco being of late years found out and brought from foreign parts in small quantities, was taken and used by the better sort, both then and now, only as physic, to preserve health, but is now, at this day, through evil custom and the toleration thereof, excessively taken by a number of riotous and disorderly persons of mean and base condition, who do spend most of their time in that idle vanity, to the evil example and corrupting of others; and also do consume the wages which many of them get by their labour, not caring at what price they buy that drug: by which immoderate taking of tobacco the health of a great number of our people is impaired and their bodies weakened and made unfit for labour; besides that also a great part of the treasure of our land is spent and exhausted by this only drug, so licentiously abused of the meaner sort; all which enormous inconvenience we do perceive to proceed principally from the great quantity of tobacco brought into this our realm, which excess might in great part be restricted by some good imposition to be laid on it. Wherefore, &c."[*]

Restrictions on the growth of the "weed."
A. D. 1619.

But this was not the only check upon the trade of the new colonies. At a later period, in 1619, the king issued a proclamation in Virginia, to restrain the people from growing tobacco. He commanded that no planter should make above one hundred weight of tobacco per annum, "for the market was so low, he could not give above three shillings per pound for it," and advised the colonists to turn their spare time towards producing corn and stock, and towards the making of potash, or other manufactures.* This proclamation, which is given in the history of Virginia, is sufficiently strangely worded to induce the belief that it was issued by some local authority, but it was A.D. 1620. enforced in the early part of the following year, by a proclamation which commenced—

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[*] Nevertheless the consumption must have largely increased; especially if, as is asserted, there were "7,000 tobacco shops in London in 1614."

[†] Fœdera, c. xvi. p. 601.

> "Whereas we, out of the dislike we had of the use of tobacco, tending to a general and new corruption both of our bodies and manners, and yet, nevertheless, holding it, of the two, more tolerable that the same should be imported, amongst other vanities and superfluities which come from beyond seas, than be permitted to be planted here within this realm, thereby to abuse and misemploy the soil of this fruitful kingdom, &c.; We therefore strictly charge and command that our proclamation of December last, restraining the planting of tobacco, be observed."

The king appears hardly to have imagined that the time would come when tobacco would be so important an article of commerce, and so fruitful a source of revenue in his dominions. The effect of his proclamations was most injurious to the rising colonies, and, in 1624, he was obliged to issue a proclamation prohibiting the importation of any tobacco except from Virginia and the Somers Islands, thereby giving them a monopoly of the trade.

Its importation prohibited except from Virginia and Bermuda.

Commission to inquire into state of trade.

One of the latest acts of King James's reign was to issue a special commission to inquire into the state of trade, and especially of the wool trade, which was said to be depressed. This was the first commission of the sort ever instituted, and it is thought to have been instigated partly by causeless complaints as to the state of trade, and partly by some real grounds of grievance arising out of the competition of the

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* At a subsequent period, the King, with more judgment, recommended the propagation of the silkworm in Virginia. It is rather strange that it should not have been tried in a climate so well calculated for the propagation of the worm.

Hollanders, and the disputes between private traders and the Merchant Adventurers of London, and also between the Levant and the East India Companies.

A good understanding generally prevailed throughout this reign between King James and the citizens. London began to exhibit a greatly improved outward aspect. An Act of Parliament was passed for paving the outlying hamlets of St.-Giles-in-the-Fields, and Drury Lane.* The City undertook the paving of their market at Smithfield, and the king (A.D. 1618), issued a commission "for the removal of nuisances "in the grounds called Lincoln's-Inn-Fields, and for "laying out those fields into regular walks, &c., in "such form as Inigo Jones, our surveyor-general "of our works, and one of the commissioners, shall "draw by way of map." The "substantial inhabitants" of the adjacent parishes were called on to defray the expense by contributions, and the king directed that "a list of all such as will not contribute shall be laid before us." This mode of providing for the expense was probably the reason why the work was imperfectly executed.

Improvement of London,

In 1619, a proclamation was made for the builders of London to make their walls of brick; and it must not be omitted to be noticed that it was in the same year that London was first effectually supplied with water from the Lea through the enterprise and energy of Mr. (afterwards Sir Hugh) Middleton.† The canal constructed for the purpose of

and of its water supply.

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* 3 Jac. I. c. 22.

† The first extraneous water supply of London was from the Ty-burn, from whence water was brought in pipes for the supply of the Great Conduit erected in West Cheap in the year 1285. Three hundred years after (in 1582), Thames water was first conveyed into houses by pipes, from an engine erected near London Bridge, by Peter Norris, a Dutchman. Middleton first laid his scheme for supplying the City with water from the River Lea before the Common Council in 1609; and the New River was completed, and water brought into London houses by it, in 1620.

affording this supply, is to this day a monument of engineering skill. Perhaps, however, the most valuable improvement for London effected in this reign, was the improvement of the navigation of the upper section of the river Thames, so as to make the whole course of that river navigable for barges and lighters, from Oxford to London. This was done by Act of Parliament (21 Jac. I. c. 32), "for the "conveyance of Oxford freestone by water to London, "and for coals and other necessaries from London to "Oxford, now coming at a dear rate, only by land "carriage, whereby the roads are become exceeding "bad." The Act shows that the Thames was already navigable from London to Burcot, and that it was also navigable for many miles above Oxford, so that a deepening of the navigation for about seven miles, placed London in direct water-communication with several inland counties.

Navigation of the Thames improved.

Temp. CHARLES I. A.D. 1625.

It would have been well indeed both for himself and for his people, had King Charles I. carried out the policy of Queen Elizabeth, and of his father, with regard to trade. But from his first accession to the crown, Charles pursued a course most repugnant to the feelings and detrimental to the interests of his people. He ascended the throne in 1625, and one of his earliest acts was to create one of those trading monopolies which had been so much complained of in the time of his father, and against which the Parliament had legislated only in the previous year.

Trading monopolies restored.

Trading patents and monopolies had been granted by Elizabeth and James as acts of favour at the instance of their favourites. Charles thought that they could be made a means of enriching himself. He accordingly granted monopolies and patents in all directions, and to whomsoever would pay him most for them. The freedom of trade, which had so rapidly enriched the nation since the first year of Elizabeth, was interfered with in almost every direction. The importation of alum was prohibited, in order to create a monopoly in favour of certain alum works in Yorkshire.* The manufacture of bricks was interfered with. The King took into his own hands the manufacture of saltpetre, which was to be made from urinary deposits. Monopolies were granted for manufacturing tapestries; for opening mines in Cardiganshire; for dressing ships with a cement which would prevent them from burning in fights at sea, and would also preserve them from barnacles. Patents were issued "for the manufacture of copper farthings;" for the "sole making of steel;" for "rendering sea coal and pit coal as useful as charcoal, without offence by smell or smoke;" "for the sole making of stone pots, jugs, and bottles;" "for the draining out of mines;" "for making guns, great and small;" "for melting iron ore;" "for plowing land without horses or oxen;" "for making "mills to grind without the help of horses, wind, or "water;"—the patentees of all these projects paying a yearly sum to the Royal Exchequer. Many of the projects were absurd, but none of them were harmless. The people were led to embark their money in projects thus launched with the royal sanction and support; and, as the projects either proved unworkable and came to nothing, or were interfered with by new plans for which patents were also granted, all the blame of failure came to be attributed to the king, who conducted the affairs of the State without either Cabinet or Parliament, and his personal unpopularity became excessive.

Nor was this the worst. For the purpose of raising revenue, Charles interfered with privileges which had been granted by his predecessors on the throne to influential trading communities. His father had done enough to injure the plantation in Virginia; Charles annulled the charter of the London merchants for the settlement of that dependency, made a royal monopoly of the sale of tobacco within the realm, and gave the finishing stroke to the prosperity of the colony by prohibiting the exportation of tobacco from Virginia to any foreign state, and by taking the sole pre-emption into his own hands at his own price. Of his own authority, King Charles also levied a duty of 4*s*. per chaldron on all coal exported from England to foreign ports, interfering with a trade which, as we have already seen, had become of some magnitude; and in 1636, nothing else being left him to tax, he established a malting and brewing monopoly, under pretence of restraining the excessive number of maltsters, and the abuse of making bad malt, and the excessive number of victuallers "who took upon "them to brew ale and beer, and make it too strong "and heady, serving for drunkenness and excess."

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* Probably those now possessed by the Marquis of Normanby, near Whitby.

Tobacco made a Royal Monopoly.

A duty laid on the export of coals.

A brewing monopoly established.

Effects of these measures.

Measures such as these, which interfered with the trade of every class amongst the people, from the merchant prince down to the publican, could not but occasion the direst confusion, and the gravest dissatisfaction. Constant evasions or attempted evasions, of the monopolies assured by the Crown, and of the privileges, or pretended privileges, granted to its patentees, soon filled the jails of England. Charles granted "commissions to compound with offenders"—another mode of legalising offences upon payment of a fine. This dissatisfied the patentees; and at length, such was the confusion, that Charles, to quiet his people, was obliged to issue a proclamation, "utterly "revoking divers grants, licences, privileges, and "commissions, procured from him on pretence for the "common good and profit of his subjects, and since, "upon experience, found to be prejudicial, and inconvenient to the people." But, as usually happens in the case of a royal concession, it came "TOO LATE." The nation was on the eve of revolution, and concession only gave encouragement to those who were preparing for revolt.

Charles even went the length of endeavouring to subject to some sort of taxation those whom he most oppressed. We have seen that in the preceding reign, emigration had begun to make some progress, and in this reign, the Puritans were inclined to seek in the New World a free sphere for its exercise. Charles, under pretence that the emigration of persons paying subsidies within the realm would impoverish the kingdom, issued a proclamation to prevent "these "idle and refractory spirits, whose only, or principal "end, is to live as much as they can without the "reach of authority," from embarking themselves without a licence: or, if under the value of a subsidy man, "without a certificate of his having taken the "oaths of allegiance and supremacy, and likewise "from the minister of his parish, of his conversa-"tion and conformity to the orders and discipline of "the Church of England." In the blindness of his counsels he even went further than this; for having refused to allow the Puritans to seek freedom from persecution in the wilderness, he proceeded to the length of preventing them from earning their bread at home, by trading restrictions such as that imposed upon the Weavers' Company of London. That corporation was allowed only to admit into its freedom such "as should be conformable to the laws of the realm "and the constitutions of the Church of England."

Emigration restricted, A.D. 1637,

and the freedom of trading companies limited to persons who conformed to the Church of England.

"As if," says an old writer, "the constitutions of "any Church could have anything to do with the "trade of weaving."

At length these tyrannical restrictions on the liberty of trade and the exercise of religion led to their natural consequences. The Imposition of Ship-Money, by which every county in England was annually taxed to provide a ship of war of a certain tonnage and with a certain number of men, to make war upon the Dutch * (a measure, in itself, by no means popular), led to that struggle which is known in our history as the GREAT REVOLUTION. Of course, during the whole period of the Civil War, trade must have been greatly affected. The straits to which the king himself was driven are matters of history, as are many of the extraordinary methods he resorted to for raising money. Only one of these discreditable proceedings need be recorded here. On the eve of his struggle with the Scots, King Charles bought up on credit all the pepper in London belonging to the East India Company, which he sold out again, for ready money. In 1642, we find in an account of money disbursed out of the tonnage and poundage duty, an acknowledgment of the debt in an entry as follows:—

The Great Revolution.

> "To the East India Company, in part of a debt owing to them by his majesty for pepper, bought by my Lord Cottington, 9,413*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.*"

Trade of London during the Civil War.

Though the trade of London must have suffered most severely during the Civil War, we find the citizens still the richest population in the empire, and able to make the largest contributions to the cause which they espoused. Although, according to Clarendon, the Londoners, throughout this reign, made the most lamentable and continual complaints of the ruinous effects of the king's measures on their trade, yet it is clear, from the state of the customs duties in 1640, that the trade of the kingdom had progressively advanced.

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* The City of London was taxed at two ships of 800 tons and 320 men each, Devonshire was required to supply the largest ship, which was 900 tons burden, and 360 men. Leicestershire was rated to the smallest, 450 tons, and 180 men.

Manufactures at Manchester.

In 1641 we have a printed notice of the industry of Manchester, though that town is believed to have had manufactures before 1600. A writer of the period gives the following curious account of the trade of the town:—

> "The town of Manchester buys the linen yarn of the Irish in great quantity, and, weaving it, returns it again into Ireland to sell. Neither," he adds, "does her industry end here, for they buy cotton wool in London, that comes first from Cyprus and Smyrna, and work the same into fustians, vermilions, dimities, &c. which they return to London, where they are sold, and from thence, not seldom, are sent into such foreign parts where the first materials may be more easily had for the manufacture."*

Banking established in London.

The outbreak of the Civil War is said to have occasioned the establishment of banking business in London. Prior to that time, the Royal Mint in the Tower had for some years been made use of by merchants as a Bank of Deposit; but King Charles having made free with the money therein, the Mint lost its credit. On the breaking out of the Civil War, the merchants began to lodge their cash in the hands of goldsmiths, with power to receive and pay for them; and, no doubt, also calculating that, in certain events, these goldsmiths would be able to send their money to foreign parts, in the form of plate or otherwise. The goldsmiths also, at the same time, began to receive the rents of gentlemen's estates, and to hold the same to their credit, with interest. It was very soon found that this system was highly convenient for all parties in commercial transactions. The bankers soon began to flourish, and in the Commonwealth were able to supply Cromwell with advances on the security of the public revenues.

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* The Treasury of Traffic, by Lewis Roberts, 1641.

Its great success.

To such extent indeed did banking succeed, that several projects were started during the Commonwealth for the establishment of banks, by public companies and otherwise, on, to say the least, very questionable bases. Amongst others, one Henry Robinson projected the establishment of a "Land Bank," with a principal bank in London and 100 branches in country towns, to lend money upon mortgage of lands at 6 per cent., the payments of the bank to be in "bank credit,"—*i.e.* paper. This, and other like proposals, though not adopted at the time, were revived at a later period.

The COMMONWEALTH.

Disputes with the Dutch.

A.D. 1651.

The stoppage of English trade during the Civil War was of great advantage to the Dutch. Amsterdam in a few years rose to a great state of prosperity, and "the Hollanders had, in short, at this time, well-"nigh beaten all nations by traffic out of the seas, "and become the only carriers of goods through-"out the world." * In 1651, the Rump Parliament, observing with concern the growth of Dutch commerce, and that their vessels were importing even the produce of our own possessions, whilst our English ships were rotting at home, passed a Navigation Act, prohibiting importation of merchandize from Asia, Africa, or America, except in English-built ships. This law grievously affected the Dutch, who complained loudly, but were unable to obtain any satisfaction. Thereupon disputes arose between the two States, and the Dutch prepared for

The Navigation Act.

War consequent thereon.

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* De Witt's Interest of Holland, part i. c. 13.

war, which broke out in the following year (1652), and continued until 1654. The English had the advantage, not only in the naval engagements, but by being able almost to annihilate the Dutch commerce, which necessarily passed through the English Channel. In the two years of this war, the English captured or destroyed 700 Dutch merchant vessels—a loss so severe, that the States were obliged to sue for peace, and to accept such terms as the Protector thought fit to grant. By this result of the war English trade was soon restored.

Readmission of the Jews. A.D. 1656.

The policy of England being liberal, the Jews at this time petitioned Cromwell to readmit them to settle in England, from which they had been excluded since their expulsion by King Edward I. (365 years). Their admission was opposed by Prynne and other Roundheads, but the Protector was persuaded of the benefit to commerce which would result from their readmission, and admitted them accordingly.*

Feeling of the citizens towards Cromwell.

Although commercial advantages were secured to England under the Commonwealth, Cromwell was never able to obtain the entire good-will or confidence of the mercantile community of London. Probably, they regarded him merely as a military leader, and considered the future position of the country too unsettled, under his government, to induce them to place in it implicit confidence. As always happens after lengthened wars and intestine commotion, an obvious anxiety was evidenced, during the later years of the Commonwealth for a permanent and stable government; and Cromwell's last breath was scarcely drawn, before the Citizens of London deserted the party of which they had been the main support, complaining that "the good old cause had been too long neglected." With almost universal acclamation they accepted General Monk's proposal to restore the royal family of Stuart; and King Charles II. was received in London with such universal acclamations, that he wondered "where "his enemies were concealed, and how he could "have so long delayed repairing to his friends."

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* The Jews on their return to London settled in Duke's Place, Aldgate; a locality which they still inhabit in large numbers, and close to which they have their principal synagogue.

The RESTORATION. A.D. 1660.

One of the very first acts of the Parliament, on the Restoration, was to grant to the king, "their supreme "liege Lord and Sovereign," "one subsidy called "tonnage, and another called poundage." This act established differential duties, which show with much significance the state of public opinion as to trade at this time. The tonnage granted was as follows:—

Tonnage duties granted.

"For every ton of Wine, the growth of France, that shall come into the PORT OF LONDON by way of merchandize,

"By your natural born subjects, 4*l.* 10*s.*

"By strangers and aliens, 6*l.*

"And into the OUTPORTS,

"By natural born subjects, 3*l.*; and by aliens, 4*l.* 10*s.*

"For every butt or pipe of Mucadels, Malagays, Gites, Tents, Alicants, Bastards, Sacks, Canaries, Malagas, Madeiras, and other wines whatsoever, commonly called sweet wines, of the growth of the Levant, Spain, and Portugal, or any of them, or of the islands belonging to them, or elsewhere,

"That shall come into the Port of London,

"Brought by English subjects, 2*l.* 5*s.*; and by aliens, 3*l.*

"And into the Outports,

"By English subjects, 1*l.* 10*s.*; and by aliens, 2*l.* 5*s.*

"And also for Rhenish wines,

"By natural born subjects, 1*l.* per aum; and by aliens, 1*l.* 5*s.*"

Poundage.

POUNDAGE was granted,

"For all manner of goods or merchandize exported or imported, either by denizens or aliens, 12*d.* for every 20*s.* as in the book of rates valued, or *ad valorem;* and for English products or manufactures exported by aliens, 12*d.* more for every 20*s.* over and above the first 20*s.*; excepting, however, all manner of woollen cloths, commonly called old draperies, and all other goods mentioned to be customs free in the said book of rates."*

A Navigation Act passed.

At the same time an Act was passed, on the principle of that of 1651, "for the general encouragement and increase of shipping and navigation," but it was questioned whether exclusive trade was now necessary; for under the operation of the previous act, and in consequence of the injury inflicted on Dutch commerce, "ships in England had become one-third dearer, and seamen's wages so excessive," that the cost of our freight had become very much enhanced.

Trade at this period.

The trade of England at the commencement of this reign would appear to have been very flourishing. The East India Company, especially, were carrying on a most extensive business. They imported such vast quantities of muslins and other choice goods, as even to interfere (as the silk weavers complained) with the internal manufactures of the country. They imported so much raw silk as to interfere (as the Turkey Company complained) with the trade of the Levant. The consequence was, great controversies respecting this Company; one party desiring to preclude it from importing raw material, and the other party wishing to preclude it from importing manufactured goods. The cause of the Company was stoutly pleaded by Sir Josiah Child, who proved that its trade was of the greatest value to the nation; but the Company was placed in great jeopardy principally in consequence of a rupture which occurred in Parliament concerning it.

The East India Company's Trade.

Skinner's case.

Thomas Skinner, a merchant, had fitted out a ship

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* 12 Chas. II. c. 4.

A.D. 1657. for India in 1657. On her arrival out, in 1658, the agents of the East India Company not only seized the ship and her merchandize, but seized the house and Island of Barella, which Skinner had bought of the King of Jamby. Skinner came home overland (being denied a passage by sea in the East India Company's ships), and made lamentable complaints to the King, who first referred him to a Committee of his Council, and next to the House of Peers. The Peers directed the Company to answer, but they demurred to the Lords' jurisdiction, as not coming properly before them from an inferior court. The Lords overruled this plea, and the Company thereupon petitioned the House of Commons against the proceedings of the Lords, which they alleged to be contrary to law. The Lords were greatly inflamed, and gave Skinner 5,000*l.* damages against the Company. This inflamed the Commons, who sent Skinner to the Tower. The Lords voted the Company's petition to the Commons to be false and scandalous. The Commons resolved that whoever should execute the sentence of the Lords in favour of Skinner, should be deemed "a betrayer of the rights and liberties "of the Commons of England, and an infringer of "the privileges of their House." These violent proceedings obliged the King to adjourn Parliament seven times; and the quarrel reviving in 1670, the King called both Houses to Whitehall, and prevailed on them to erase all the votes of both Houses on the subject. Thus ended the great case of Skinner, after many elaborate disquisitions on the jurisdiction of either House of Parliament: amid which it does not clearly appear that Skinner ever obtained any redress at all! Some years afterwards the King granted a new charter to the Company, by which their monopoly was confirmed, and they were empowered "to seize the ships and merchandize of interlopers" with the forfeiture of one-half to the King.

Another war with the Dutch,

The prosperity of trade which marked the earlier period of this reign was not of long continuance. The Dutch having reconstructed their fleet, the war for maritime supremacy between that people and the English again broke out, and terrible conflicts at sea occurred between the fleets of the two nations. This war was most expensive and injurious to England; not so much by reason of non-success, as because the affairs of France, being well and wisely administered, that nation took every possible opportunity of profiting by the conflict which weakened her two greatest rivals. The intelligent minister, Colbert, who was called to the administration of the Finance of France, soon perceived that these vain contests for maritime supremacy afforded his country the opportunity of developing her manufacturing industry. He immediately established the famous Gobelin manufactory for tapestry, procuring the most eminent artists from all parts to support it. He established, also, manufactories of cloth, silk, and glass. He procured from England the secret of the stocking-frame; and gave encouragement to manufacturers of iron, steel, fine earthenware, and leather. "Every year of his "ministry," says Voltaire, "from 1663 to 1672, "was distinguished by the establishment of some "new manufacture."* By his means, France soon became the great rival and supplanter of both England and Holland in foreign markets, more especially in woollen goods; and even in England itself it began to be complained that "every maid-servant "had become a standing revenue to the French "King of the half of her wages."

of which the French take advantage.

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* Age of Louis XIV.

English trade stagnant.

The consequence was, that the balance of trade, very early in this reign, became against England.

	OUR IMPORTS WERE	OUR EXPORTS WERE
In 1662	£4,016,019	£2,022,812
In 1668	4,196,140	2,063,275

showing that we scarcely advanced in the interval, and that the balance was largely against us. This state of things could not continue, and, therefore, late in 1667, a treaty was concluded at Breda between England and Holland. Before it was actually signed, the Dutch entered the Medway with seventy ships of war, and took the fort of Sheerness, which they blew up, with a great quantity of stores; and after burning four or five of our largest ships at Chatham, returned in triumph to their own coast. This had nearly caused a continuation of the war, but ultimately peace was signed.

Peace restored. A.D. 1667.

The importance of this peace to English trade was established by the eagerness with which the people immediately applied themselves to commercial concerns. Trade, however, required encouragement, and certain persons about the Court endeavoured to obtain it from the Sovereign. In the year 1669, Prince Rupert, and seventeen other persons of quality, sent out an adventure to Hudson's Bay, and in 1670 they obtained a Charter for a Company, since called the Hudson's Bay Company, giving them—

The Hudson's Bay Company chartered.

> "The sole trade and commerce of all the seas, bays, straits, creeks, lakes, rivers, and sounds, that lie within the entrance of the strait, commonly called Hudson's Straits," together with the fishery therein, and "all mines royal of gold, silver, gems, and pretious stones;" "yielding and paying yearly to us, our heirs and successors, for the same, two elks and two black beavers, whensoever and as often as we, our heirs and successors, shall happen to enter into the said seas, straits, bays," &c.

The Charter was a very ample one, but the "mines royal of gold, silver, gems, and pretious stones" proved illusory. The sort of commerce carried on by the company was exhibited half a century afterwards. It was a commerce with the Indians wholly by barter—the articles given for skins being powder, shot, hatchets, beads, tobacco, knives, guns, old clothes, kettles, looking-glasses, combs, &c. For these things, in 1740, the Company received and imported about 45,000 beaver skins, 100,000 other skins, 4,800 lb. of bed feathers, 1,200 whale fins, and 240 gallons of whale oil.

The king's Exchequer closed, A.D. 1671-2.

Probably this and other concessions to commerce would have given stimulus to the English trade, but unhappily, in the following year (A.D. 1671-2), King Charles II., pressed by pecuniary difficulties, and in anticipation of another war with the Dutch, was so ill-advised as to shut up his Exchequer, most cruelly and unjustly seizing the monies of the merchants and bankers deposited therein to the amount of 1,328,526*l*. The result was not only a very just clamour, but an entire cessation of all confidence in the government. Sir Wm. Temple, in his Miscellanies, remarks that, by this act—

> "The credit of the Exchequer was irrecoverably lost, for credit is gained by custom, and seldom recovers a strain. I have heard," he says, "a great example given of this that happened upon the late King Charles I. seizing 200,000*l*. in the Mint; but after that invasion of it, although the king paid back the money in a few months, the Mint never recovered its credit amongst foreign merchants."

In the case of King Charles II. the same result happened. Trade was paralyzed. The Crown never recovered its credit in the time of the Stuarts, and this breach of honour and good faith was probably one of the latent circumstances which contributed to the ruin of that family.

Another Dutch war. A.D. 1672.

To make things worse, at a later period of the year 1672, war was again declared against the Dutch, and continued, with numerous and terrible battles at sea, until 1674. In these battles both nations claimed the victory, and both may be said to have suffered the defeat—the losses on each side were so vast. In 1674 peace was restored, and such was the immediate effect on trade, that after a great frost in that year, "there sailed out of the harbour of Rotterdam no "less than 300 sail of English, Scotch, and Irish "ships all at once, with an easterly wind." *

Peace. A.D. 1674.

Revocation of the Edict of Nantes. A.D. 1685.

The event, however, which tended most to the prosperity of England at this time was less the restoration of peace with Holland than the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, under which the Protestants in France had previously enjoyed the free and public exercise of their religion. This event proved very lamentable to hundreds of thousands of French people, amongst whom were many of the best merchants, manufacturers, and artificers of that kingdom. All that Colbert had so perseveringly and successfully endeavoured to establish was shattered by this religious blow. Numbers of artificers came to England; among them a large body of skilled silk manufacturers, who settled themselves in London, in the districts of Spitalfields and Bethnal Green; and many gold and silver-smiths, watch-makers, and carvers, who settled in St. Giles, and the neighbourhood of Soho Square. The number who came over has been variously estimated at from 50 to 70,000, and they are supposed to have brought with them more than three millions of money. Assisted by these refugees, the English people set on foot a number of French manufactures and fabrics, and began to make for themselves articles which had previously been im-

Resort of French artificers to England.

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* Ker of Kersland's Memoirs, vol. ii.

ported from France, and which had contributed to make the balance of trade so large against the country.*

Public feeling in favour of the refugees,

The effect of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and of the immigration of the Protestant refugees, was not, however, confined to English trade. Occurring as it did immediately previous to the death of King Charles II., it excited throughout the country a strong Protestant feeling, which set itself determinedly against a successor to the throne who openly avowed the principles of the Roman Catholic religion. Nothing was wanting to a revolution but the policy which James II. madly adopted, which caused so determined and unmeasured a feeling against him as within two years to lead to his expulsion from the throne for ever.

and against the Catholics.

The Great Fire of London.

Two great events specially affecting London occurred in the time of Charles II. The first was the Fire of 1666, by which a very large portion of London was entirely destroyed, and which caused a vast amount of distress amongst the citizens of all ranks. 13,200 houses were burnt, together with the Cathedral of St. Paul's, and most of the churches and corporation halls; besides which, the loss of merchandize, treasure, plate, and household furniture, was immense; the damage done exceeding, as has been computed, ten millions sterling. It shows the greatness of London and the elasticity of her trade, that, although England was in the midst of a vindictive war, within four years after this event, the city was mostly re-constructed in a more beautiful and substantial manner than before.* The streets, under Act of Parliament (19 Chas. II. c. 2, 3), were ordered to be built much wider than before, and new ways constructed in the districts previously most crowded. The houses, moreover, were now all constructed of stone and brick instead of wood, and many nuisances, obstructions, and "middle rows," were entirely cleared away. The mercantile community made the greatest efforts to restore the city, and did so, very much to its commercial advantage. It has been alleged against the citizens, that their "interested opposition" prevented the very superior plans of Wren or of Evelyn being adopted, by which the beauty of the city would have been much enhanced. But it has been remarked, that, had either of those plans been adopted, the city, by the removal of its trade beyond its boundaries, would have lost in trade, in wealth, and population, as much as it would have gained in beauty.

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* Among the articles of manufacture which the English were taught to make, or in which they were improved, by the French refugees, were light woollens, silk, linen, writing paper, glass, hats, lutestring silks, brocades, satins, ducapes, velvets, watches, cutlery, clocks, jacks, locks, surgeons' instruments, hardware, toys, &c. The greatest encouragement and assistance were given to the refugees, for whom collections were made even in James the Second's reign, as was indeed the case in every Protestant country of Europe. At the commencement of the reign of William III. 15,000*l.* a year was settled by Parliament on such of them as were persons of quality, or were, through age or infirmity, unable to support themselves.

The charters and franchises of London seized.

The Fire of London was made the pretext for a political act of Charles II. equally unjust and impolitic. After the shutting up of the Exchequer, in 1671–2, a very ill feeling grew up between the court and the city, which continued throughout the reign. The citizens, resolute to maintain their liberties, were constantly thwarting the despotic measures of the court, and the court consequently made great efforts, of a very corrupt character, to acquire an ascendancy in the city. In 1683, an attempt was made, under circumstances which belong to history, to obtain the election of sheriffs who would empannel juries in the interest of the crown; and this attempt being thwarted by the citizens, who, under the charter of Henry I., had a clear right to choose their own sheriffs, the king determined to seize the City charters, liberties, and franchises. He accordingly ordered a writ of *quo warranto* to be prosecuted, of which the first allegation was, "that the city had forfeited "their charters, in consequence of an act of Common "Council, passed nine years previously, by virtue "of which new rates of tolls had been levied on "persons using the city markets, to pay for their "rebuilding after the great fire." The object of the king appears to have been to seize the whole of the corporate charters of England into his own hands, and to re-issue them with such limitations as he might see fit, in favour of the prerogative of the Crown. The citizens resisted this act of despotism and usurpation, and their case was argued at great length, and with peculiar ability. But the judges, some of whom are said* to have been raised to the bench for the express purpose, gave judgment against the City.† The City charter was seized: the aldermen, recorder, and other officers of the corporation, obnoxious to the Court, were displaced, and other officers appointed to act "during pleasure." This violent act of power was followed by *quo warrantos* against most of the other corporations of England, including the trading (or livery) companies of London. Seeing the inutility of opposition in the then state of the courts of law, they most of them surrendered their charters into the king's hands at once.

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* Within seven years the whole work of restoration was accomplished, except St. Paul's.

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* *Vide* Burnet's History of His Own Time.

† Judgment was delivered in Trin. Term, 35 Chas. II. (June, 1684). Chief Justice Sanders, who is probably pointed to by Bishop Burnet, died the same day, or the day after judgment was given; and the court was therefore only composed of the puisne judges Jones, Raymond, and Withers. Justice Jones pronounced the judgment, and the others assented, and affirmed that Chief Justice Sanders was of the same opinion. Their decisions were—"1. That a corporation aggregate "might be seized. 2. That exacting and taking money by the pretended by-law "was extortion, and a forfeiture of the franchise of being a corporation," &c. (*Vide* the Charter of the City, and Abstract of the Arguings of the Case of Quo Warranto, by J. E. London, 1738.)

King JAMES II. offers to restore the charter. A.D. 1688.

The citizens continued to be deprived of their charter until the last year of King James II.; but no sooner did that monarch hear of the landing of the Prince of Orange, than he sent for the Lord Mayor and aldermen, and informed them of his intention to restore all their privileges. His chancellor, Jeffreys, accordingly came down to the Guildhall in great state, and delivered to the citizens a charter, together with two grants of restoration to the Court of Aldermen; but the king had hardly left London to encounter his opponents, when the Court of Common Council agreed to address the Prince of Orange, imploring his protection, and promising him a welcome reception in the City. When the prince arrived in London, the Corporation waited upon him with an ardent address of congratulation, delivered by their own Recorder; and one of the first acts of William and Mary was "An Act for reversing the judgment in a *quo* "*warranto* against the City of London, and for "restoring the same to its ancient rights and pri-"vileges."—(2 Wm. and Mary, Session 1.)

Temp. WILLIAM and MARY.

The Bank of England established, A.D. 1694.

The prosperity of the country was evidenced in the reign of William and Mary by the establishment of the Bank of England, which, despite a great deal of opposition from the Court and the monied men, obtained a charter on 27th July, 1694.* The establishment of the Bank of England gave life and energy to business, and made trade easy. Great eagerness was exhibited to embark in commercial enterprise; and this even extended itself to Scotland, where, in 1795, the Bank of Scotland was established, which soon rose to very high credit. The projector of both banks was Mr. William Paterson. The capital of the Scotch Bank was 1,200,000*l.* Scotch, or 100,000*l.* sterling.

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* The capital was 1,200,000*l.* sterling. Sir John Houblon was the first Governor, Michael Godfrey, Esq., who had written strongly in favour of the formation of the Bank, was the first Deputy-Governor.

The Bank of Scotland.

The Darien Company.

The Scotch, in the same year, embarked in another company, originated by Mr. Paterson, which obtained great notoriety, and became the subject of much dispute. This was a company called "The Company of Scotland, trading to Africa and the Indies;" a trade, which they proposed to conduct as far as India, was commenced, across the Isthmus of Panama, at a settlement called "Darien." But this Company met with great jealousy from the English merchants. Parliament was induced to address the king against it, and they even went so far as to impeach two persons who had been instrumental in getting subscriptions for it in London. Despite these and other obstacles the Company was formed, and, in 1698, it sent out an expedition of five ships to Darien, where a fort was erected, called St. Andrew, and a new town founded, called New Edinburgh. This caused great rejoicings in Scotland, where the people, with an amount of enthusiasm rather unusual among the Scotch, at once concluded that they were about to establish a trade with Peru and Mexico, and China and Japan, besides India, the Spice Islands, and all the coast of America, north and south.

Its difficulties

The promoters of this Company did not, however, calculate sufficiently on the difficulties of their position. Not only was the project itself full of difficulty, involving as it did an unlading and reshipment of goods upon the voyage, and their portage through a very mountainous and difficult country, but almost all Europe eyed this project with jealousy and disfavour. The King of Spain represented to the King of England that this settlement of his subjects in the heart of the Spanish dominion in America was "an insult." The Dutch regarded it as injuriously affecting their East India Company and their new settlement at Curaçoa. The French were apprehensive it would injure their West India commerce, which was beginning to be considerable; and the East India Company of London brought all their powerful influence to bear against the project both in Parliament and at the Throne. Thus pressed on all sides, by subjects and by allies, the king was compelled to disavow the Company, which he did by a proclamation, issued in the spring of 1699, prohibiting supplies being sent to the Scottish colony at Darien, either from Great Britain or any of her dependencies. The colony, by this proclamation, was ruined, and the settlers were obliged to abandon it on the 20th June, 1699, after having bravely defended it from a Spanish force which had been sent against it. This disaster greatly inflamed the Scotch people against King William and their English neighbours. They demanded redress; and even so late as 1706, when the Articles of Union were under consideration, with characteristic pertinacity, they refused to sign them until measures had been taken for indemnifying all who had suffered by the Company, and repaying the shareholders the full capital and interest.

And disasters.

Speculations of this period.

Restrained by continental wars from engaging largely in foreign trade, the English during this reign embarked their money in numerous projects, chiefly for the development of the internal resources of the country. Banks, linen companies, drainage companies, salt and paper manufactories, water companies, and mining and fishing companies were started without number in 1695 and 1696; and with them many projects of a less useful and beneficial character.

The spirit thus invoked led to a great deal of gambling in shares; and lottery speculations without number were established, which multiplied exceedingly and promised "mountains of gold."

Position of the East India Company.

The Foreign Trade, however, was not in good condition, and in the later years of King William III. even the East India Company, in consequence of their losses during the war, was unable to pay a dividend. Against this Company the fury of the London silk weavers was directed, and so tumultuous did they become, that, in 1697, they attempted to seize the treasure at the East India House, and almost succeeded. Their complaints led to proceedings in Parliament in the spring of 1698, in the course of which "a new company" was formed under very powerful auspices, which obtained parliamentary powers, and raised 2,000,000*l*. of capital. Without recounting all the difficulties which ensued, it may suffice to mention that ultimately the two companies were incorporated in one, in 1702.

Shipping of England, A.D.1701-

At the close of this reign we have the first record of the number and measurement of vessels belonging to the different ports of England. It is derived from a return issued by the Commissioners of Customs for 1701–2, and shows that there belonged to all the English ports—

3,281 Vessels, estimated at 261,222 Tons, and carrying 27,196 Men.

The principal ports were as follows :—

	Ships.	Tons.	Men.		Ships.	Tons.	Men.
London . .	560	84,882	10,065	Hull . . .	115	7,564	187
Bristol . .	165	17,338	2,359	Whitby . .	110	8,292	571
Yarmouth .	143	9,914	668	Liverpool .	102	8,619	1,101
Exeter . .	121	7,107	978	Scarborough	100	6,860	606

No other port had 100 vessels; but Newcastle had 63 vessels, measuring 11,000 tons; and Ipswich had

39, measuring 11,170 tons.* Of the Hull vessels, 80 were laid up, which accounts for the small number of men in that port.

Temp. QUEEN ANNE.

The Methuen Treaty.

Queen Anne commenced her reign by declaring war against France. She immediately afterwards entered into a treaty with the King of Portugal, whereby, in exchange for a free admission of woollens into Portugal, England bound herself "for ever to "admit the wines of the growth of Portugal into "Britain," "so that at no time, whether in peace "or war, there should be a higher duty upon those "wines than on the wines of France."† This was a most improvident arrangement, inasmuch as it was calculated to exclude us from a large market for our goods in France, and limit us to a very small market for them in Portugal; excluding us also from the greatest, cheapest, and most varied wine-producing country of the world. For upwards of a century and a half, however, high-priced port wine was forced into consumption in England under the provisions of this treaty; from which we were only relieved, in 1860, by the effect of the recent commercial treaty with France.

Its injurious effect on our relations with France.

A trade, however, sprung up with Portugal. "The Methuen Treaty," in the course of the years of war which succeeded, became the charter of a vested interest; and a great clamour was raised in 1713, when, under the articles of the Treaty of Utrecht, it was proposed to place France in the same commercial position, as regarded her trade with England, as she had been in 1664. Newspapers were started to assail the articles, and "the weavers," as usual, predicted all sorts of ruin to the "black and coloured silk manufacture" from an introduction of silks, ribbons, and embroideries from France. The Parliament, by a majority of nine, refused to ratify, by Act of the Legislature, so much of the treaty as re-established French trade, and the commerce of the two greatest commercial countries of the world remained, in consequence, in a state of semi-prohibition on both sides, to the great encouragement of the smuggler.

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* This figure has been questioned, but there is reason to think it correct. In Clarke's "History of Ipswich," he speaks of "the huge colliers, called Cats," which used to be employed here. He says, "These cats were of large tonnage, "standing very high above the water. They were wider in proportion than other "vessels of similar burden; their hulls were painted black, and, with their dingy "crew and gigantic bulk, they had a gloomy and terrific appearance. It is still a "common expression among the old seamen, in reference to the face of a vessel, "to say that she is *cat-built*."—(Clarke's Ipswich: Ips. 1830, p. 417.) "Ships "of any burden can come up the Orwell as far as Downham Reach." The shipping of Ipswich in 1830 numbered 147 vessels, of 8,538 tons. The number of craft had largely increased, though the tonnage had diminished.

† Mr. Gladstone's device of an "alcoholic test," *i.e.* a differential duty on wines, according to their strength, no doubt had for its object to release England from the meshes of this treaty.

The South Sea Company chartered, A.D. 1711.

It was in the ninth year of Queen Anne that Sir Robert Walpole, Earl of Oxford, then Prime Minister and Lord Treasurer of Great Britain, procured an Act of Parliament to be passed for "making "good deficiencies and satisfying the public debts, "and for erecting a corporation to carry on a trade to "the South Seas, and for the encouragement of the "fishery," &c. The Royal Charter incorporating the Company was dated the 8th September following. Its stock rose to a high price. The Queen, who was said to take a personal interest in its success, obtained the Company the privilege to trade on the Spanish Main from the King of Spain. The Company, however, did not commence trade, but kept adding to its capital stock until Midsummer, 1715, when it amounted to ten millions. In the same year it launched its first ship, called the *Royal Prince*, after the Prince of Wales (George II.), who was magnificently entertained on board. This vessel did not make her first voyage until 1717.

Condition of trade in this reign.

The balance of trade throughout this reign was in favour of England, and the net customs duties rose from 1,389,000*l.* in 1700, to 1,714,000*l.* in 1714. The East India Company, in a representation to the House of Commons in 1712, alleged that "they annually exported to the East Indies about 150,000*l.* value in woollen goods and other English products." Upon the whole, however, it cannot be considered that trade was flourishing, or that improvements were at all proportioned to the advancement of the age, whilst the long wars with France created a national debt, amounting at the death of Anne to 50,000,000*l.* sterling.

Temp. GEORGE I.

To meet this heavy burden the Ministers of George I., as soon as his government was established, were compelled to take measures for the reduction of the legal rate of interest. This was a salutary measure for commerce, and it began to extend itself in consequence. Unhappily, however, the attention of all classes was speedily diverted from legitimate enterprise by the scheme brought out by Law in Paris, for the settlement of Louisiana by a company designated the "Mississippi Company." This scheme gave an impulse to speculation, which extended itself to every quarter of Europe, and especially to London, where the South Sea Company, which had hitherto done nothing but raise capital and build ships, proposed to the king a scheme to pay off the National Debt by incorporating it into their stock. This proposal was accepted in Parliament, and a Bill brought in "for enabling the Company to increase their present "capital stock and fund, by redeeming such public "debts and incumbrances as are therein mentioned." The rumour of this scheme sent the public into a frenzy of speculation, and the stock of the Company, which was not much above par before Christmas,

Impulse given to speculation.

The South Sea Company's scheme to pay off the National Debt.

1719, rose by the 1st June, 1720, to 890 per cent., the stocks of other Companies rising in proportion. At the same time, numerous new projects were brought out, some of which were sound,* whilst others were of a very speculative character. The rage for speculation in these various Companies at length reached a point at which the managers of the South Sea Company thought, very foolishly, that they obstructed the operations of the South Sea Company; and accordingly, in August, 1720, they caused legal proceedings to be taken by writ of *scire facias* against certain of these "pretended companies" "promulgated contrary to law." The immediate effect of these proceedings was, of course, the collapse of the companies directly proceeded against and of many others of lesser note; and as the public did not know to what extent such proceedings might go, they began to withdraw their money, as well as they could, from all the speculations, the various shares of which underwent in consequence most rapid diminution. The South Sea Company itself participated in this decline, for, although by the promise of dividends of from 30 to 50 per cent. the price of their stock was maintained at about 800 until the 1st September, it had sunk by the 29th to 175, and the bonds of the Company were at 25 discount.

Collapse of the speculative Companies.

The result of all this was great uneasiness and clamour, and a run upon the Bank. Before the close of the year, the country began to experience severe distress. Various expedients were started for relieving the sufferers. The South Sea Company petitioned the King for a grant of that part of the island of St. Christopher's, which had been ceded by France to England under the Treaty of Utrecht, or for the

National distress.

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* The Royal Exchange and the London Assurance Corporations, two of the greatest fire and life insurance offices in London, were originated at this time.

territory of Nova Scotia, which they offered to settle and make advantageous to trade. They did not succeed in this application, but they induced the Legislature to remit the entire sum they were bound to pay for taking up the National Debt; so that the public were deprived of all the benefit anticipated from that scheme. In the following year, Parliament appointed a Select Committee of Inquiry into the affairs of the South Sea Company, which ended in restrains upon the directors and officers, who were prohibited from leaving the kingdom, in proceedings against other influential authorities, and in "an Act for restoring public credit." But this, an Act of Parliament must always be comparatively ineffectual to accomplish; and much more was done to restore public credit by the peace which was shortly afterwards concluded with Spain, than by all the measures which Parliament could enact upon the subject.

Trade opened by the South Sea Company.

Peace being established in 1721, the South Sea Company sent out a rich ship to trade with the Spanish settlements at Porto Bello and Carthagena,* and in 1723 they sent another ship, with a rich freight, to trade at Vera Cruz. In 1725, stimulated by the success of the Dutch in the Greenland whale fishery, the same Company commenced sending ships to fish for whales. This trade they carried on for eight years (until 1732), when, finding that there had been considerable losses, they were obliged to lay it aside. Their total disbursements on account of the fishery amounted, during the eight years, to 262,172*l*. The amount obtained by the sale of oil and whale fins, as well as by the sale of their ships and stores, was 84,390*l*.: leaving a dead loss of principal, without interest, of 177,782*l*. The Company claimed great merit for having carried on the trade so long under such disadvantages.

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* The Company were obliged to obtain licences from the Spanish government to carry on this traffic, and great difficulties were sometimes thrown in the way of their trade.

Trade of London at this period.

As showing the state of trade of the port at this period, some statistics may be interesting :—

NUMBER OF VESSELS entered Inwards in the Port of London, 1728 :—

British	1,839
Foreign	213
Coasters	6,837
Total	8,889

EXPORTS from London for the month of May, 1730 :—

Woollen Cloths	5,357 pieces.	Pewter (wrought)	499½ cwt.
Bays, Colchester, &c.	6,990 ,,	Lead	184 fodder.
Stuffs, Druggets, &c.	24,484 ,,	Ditto in Shot	847 cwt.
Perpets and Serges	4,108 ,,	Alum	1,275 ,,
Hats	2,028 dozens.	Copperas	4,033 ,,
Hose	9,368 doz. prs.	Tobacco	866,163 lbs.
Flannel and Cotton	53,053 yards.	Calicoes	76,847 pieces.
Frieze	7,858 ,,	Gold Watches	47
Gartering	774 gross.	Silver ,,	113
Leather	2,290 cwt.	Wrought Plate	972 ounces.
Block Tin	1,036 ,,		

Besides 339,353 oz. of Silver, and 36,294 oz. of Gold.

IMPORTS into London, May, 1730 :—

Wines	4,299 casks.	Thrown Silk from Italy	31,218 lbs.
Ditto from Leghorn	459 chests.	Raw Silk	3,441 ,,
Ditto Rhenish	1,019 aums.	Coffee from Turkey only	1,781 cwt.
Brandy from Dunkirk	24,687 galls.	Oil from Gallipoli	390 tons.
Rum from Brit. Colonies	6,327 ,,	Holland Cloth, or Fine Linen	66,286 ells.
Sugar ,, ,,	1,421 hhds.	Ditto from Hamburgh and Bremen	1,232,209 ,,
Rice from Carolina	3,025 ,,	Irish Linen*	179,114 yards.
Spanish Wool	1,144 bags.	Linen Yarn from Hamburgh	73,450 lbs.
Indigo from Spain and our Colonies	57,784 lbs.	Coffee from Mocha	5,000 bales.
Hemp from the East Country	1,160 cwt.		

The East India Company in the spring of this year

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* In 1688 Ireland did not export annually above 6,000*l.* worth of linen. In 1741, her exports of linen were valued at 600,000*l.* This rapid increase was foretold by Sir William Temple, in his "Miscellanies." "No women," he says, "are apter to spin linen thread well than the Irish; and this trade may certainly be advanced and improved into a great manufacture, so as to bear down the trade of France and Holland; for besides what has been said of the flax and spinning, the soil and climate of Ireland are proper for whitening, both by the frequent brooks, and also the winds of the country."

Trade, A.D. 1730.

sailed seventeen ships from India to the Thames, but they did not arrive until late in the year. The South Sea Company's great ship *Prince Frederick* returned to the Thames from Vera Cruz this year, with a lading of 400,000 dollars, or Spanish pieces of eight, in specie, 190,000 lbs. of cochineal, 47,000 lbs. of indigo, and 170 tons of logwood. The cargo was valued altogether at 350,000*l.* sterling. Our colonial trade with America and the West Indies had also begun about this time to be large. The total value of the imports of England this year was 7,780,019*l.*, the exports, 8,548,982*l.*

Temp. GEORGE II.

The earlier years of the reign of George II. were very propitious to commerce. The times were tranquil; the policy of the Government had warded off foreign war, suppressed the Jacobites, and for a season paralysed faction. The nation, having recovered from the effects of the year of speculation, was now pursuing commerce steadily and surely. Money was plentiful, and the rate of interest low. The West India Islands were largely developing the sugar manufacture, and were also sending us coffee, cotton, ginger, pimento, mahogany, logwood, and indigo. Jamaica alone employed at this time 300 sail of ships and 6,000 seamen. Carolina, having become a royal dependency, had begun, after reducing the Indians, to extend its plantations. Virginia and Maryland were sending home 60,000 hhds. of tobacco annually, and the northern ports of the American coast were supplying us very largely with timber, tar, and other articles which had previously been obtained from foreign nations in the Baltic. The American colonies also exported to the West Indies cask-staves, timber, pork, peas, flour, and biscuits, in exchange for rum, of which they consumed great quantities, sugar, and Spanish mahogany. The slave trade between the

Commerce expands.

coast of Africa and the West Indies and America, also employed at this time a large number of vessels, and there was a considerable export of articles of English manufacture needed on the coast for the purchase of the slaves.

The trade of London carried on by Companies.

The greater proportion of the commerce of the port of London was at this time carried on by the great companies, such as the East India Company, the Russia Company, the Levant Company, the South Sea Company, the Hudson's Bay Company, the African Company, &c. It was probably this circumstance, as well as considerations of convenience relating to the position of the ports, and the character of the commerce, which led the West India, the African, and a large portion of the American trade, to establish itself at ports on the western coast of England, where it was carried on by individual traders. The seaports of Bristol, Liverpool, and Glasgow, began at this time to develop themselves very rapidly, as did also the cotton manufactories of Manchester, and the small ware and hardware trades of Birmingham. Liverpool had so much increased as to have become the third commercial town in England, and, together with it, Manchester had sprung into a large town, containing, in 1727, at least 50,000 people. London, also profiting by the general prosperity, had so much extended her boundaries, that new parishes were obliged to be created in Bloomsbury, Limehouse, Bethnal Green, Stepney, Westminster, and Deptford, in order to supply the spiritual wants of the new, populous, and wealthy districts which were everywhere arising. It may be observed, in proof of the growing richness of London, that it had become at this time the great European mart for diamonds, and other precious stones, the importation whereof was facilitated by an Act passed 2 Geo. II. (c. 7.)

The Outports of England.

General prosperity.

Georgia colonised.

In 1732 a most charitable design was set on foot in London by a number of benevolent gentlemen. Being moved with compassion towards the numerous poor prisoners who, under the then state of the insolvent law, were confined in the gaols for debt, they raised a subscription for sending such of them as were inclined to emigrate to a district of America, for which they procured a grant from the Crown, and which was denominated Georgia. The first settlement was made at Savannah, in 1733. This new Colony was established solely for the benefit of the emigrants, and not for purposes of gain to any company. The promoters procured and sent out vine-dressers, with different sorts of European vines, silkworms, and some Piedmontese skilled in tending them and in winding silk. They also sent all the plants and seeds likely to thrive in the climate. In 1757 (five years after), 1,052 lb. of cocoons was produced in Georgia. In 1758 the production rose to 7,000 lb.; and in 1759, to 10,000 lb., though the season was not favourable. At a subsequent period the production declined, owing probably to the cultivation of other articles of commerce.*

War with Spain, A.D. 1739.

The increase of our trade in America and the West Indies was the cause of a serious war which broke out in 1739, between Spain and England. Our colonists were naturally desirous of trading along the shores of the rich countries settled in America by Spaniards, and the position of the British West India Islands, and especially of Jamaica, gave them great facilities for doing so. But the Spaniards, who were always great monopolists in trade, laid severe restrictions on British commerce with their South American possessions. They declared it, for the most part, contraband, and guarded their coast with revenue vessels, called "*guarda costas.*"

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* In 1764, the production exceeded 15,000 lb, though the season was said to be unfavourable. The silk of Georgia, however, was complained of in the London market as "too round and spungy," owing to its being badly wound. The silk cultivation in Georgia appears to have given way to the cotton cultivation. The U.S. Gazeteer of the present day, makes no mention of silk in its list of Georgian productions.

Causes of this war.

In 1737, the merchants of Jamaica petitioned the king for protection against these *guarda costas*, which were said not only to stop and search vessels on the high seas, but forcibly and arbitrarily to seize them, and to treat the commanders and sailors with inhumanity. The king promised them redress if they could make good their allegations, which they proceeded to do. The House of Lords passed a resolution "that the "Spaniards searching British ships on the open seas, "under pretence of their carrying contraband and "prohibited goods, is a violation of the treaties "between the two crowns." And Spain, not making what was deemed satisfactory reparation, England, in 1739, declared war, "to maintain the honour of "the crown, and to obtain redress for the much "injured merchants and traders, who, from all parts "of the kingdom, made earnest petitions for relief."

Its popularity.

This war was exceedingly popular amongst the mercantile community, who anticipated great advantages from forcing Spain to open her trade. Commodore Anson's expedition was fitted out to harass the Spaniards on the coast of South America. In the course of the voyage which he made round the world, that commander captured many rich Spanish galleons, and other prizes; but it is very much to be doubted whether the injury done to British trade in the Levant, which, during this war, was largely interfered with by the French, did not more than counterbalance any successes obtained in South America. The war lasted until 1748, when peace was restored by the treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle, without Spain mak-

Its conclusion.

ing any concessions in respect of trade. Indeed, the English themselves began at that period to doubt whether a trade direct with the Spanish settlements in South America was so profitable to them as a trade with Cadiz, from which the Spaniards themselves could supply South America with British manufactures. The consequence was, that under a supplemental treaty, the South Sea Company, on receiving a certain compensation, were deprived of the privilege which Queen Anne had obtained for them, of sending an armed ship to trade on the coast of South America, and each nation agreed to treat the other on the general principle of "the most favoured nation."

Nova Scotia colonised, A.D. 1749.

On the conclusion of the war the English again began to apply themselves to colonization. Nova Scotia was at this time the scene of settlement, where, under the name of Halifax, an important town was established. At the same time the "private traders," whose influence and weight had for some time been increasing, began to make complaints against the great companies by which English trade had been hitherto principally conducted. The Hudson's Bay Company was first attacked. It was complained that, though possessed of exclusive privileges, they did not open out their trade; that their settlements were limited, their exports of small value, the soil of their territory uncultivated, though very rich and fruitful, their fisheries undeveloped, and their country rich in copper and lead mines which they afforded no encouragement to work. Bristol and Liverpool petitioned for the opening of the trade; and a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to consider the allegations against the Company. They reported that, "considering the Company's "capital, &c., it did not appear that they had not, in "the main, done as well as could be expected for

Complaints against the Hudson's Bay Company.

Parliament inquires and reports thereon.

"promoting their commerce, and that it seemed very "doubtful whether, if the trade were laid quite open, "it might not be gradually lost from us to the French "of Canada."

The African trade thrown open, A.D. 1750.

The private traders were more successful in an application to Parliament in the following year to open the trade with Africa, which was done with so much success that this branch of British commerce assumed quite a new aspect. Two years after, in 1752, the old Royal African Company, on receiving a compensation, surrendered their Charter, lands, forts, slaves, stores, and all other effects, and gave up their trade.

The Levant trade freed from restriction, A.D. 1753.

This assault being successful, in 1753 the private traders assailed the Levant Company. They obtained an Act of Parliament throwing open all the liberties and privileges enjoyed by the Company to all persons paying 20*l.* to the use of the Company. This was virtually withdrawing the Charter of the Company, and throwing open the trade to private merchants.

War with France, A.D. 1756.

In the last days of George II.'s reign commerce was unfortunately interrupted by a war which broke out with France in 1756, and continued until 1763. The British arms, however, were crowned with success by sea and land; and the acquisition of Canada may, perhaps, be regarded as some compensation for the check which our growing trade must have sustained. Apart from the checks inflicted by war, it must be acknowledged that during the reign of George II. the commerce of England made more progress than at any period up to our own time. Vast wealth was acquired by the country; and to the contentment thereby ensured, the House of Hanover, no doubt, owes its settlement upon the English throne. It should be added that the arts and sciences pro-

Progress of Commerce, Arts, and Science.

gressed greatly in England during this reign. In 1751 an Act was passed "for correcting the Calendar and establishing the new style;" and, in 1754, the Society for the Encouragement of Arts, Manufactures, and Commerce was established, which immediately issued proposals for the encouragement of our American colonies. That which was of even greater importance to commerce, was the discovery of the mode of settling the longitude at sea, by which the science of navigation at once reached its highest point.

Vessels belonging to London, Liverpool, and Bristol.

Maitland, in his *Survey of London*, has given a list of the vessels belonging to the port in 1732. They numbered 1,487, of 178,557 tons, navigated by 21,797 men. 130 of these ships were from 300 to 500 tons, and 83 from 200 to 300 tons, excepting the South Sea Company's great ship of 750 tons. In 1739 we find, from a local act of Parliament, that Liverpool had 211 ships, of which 1 was of 400, 1 of 350, 1 of 300, 1 of 250, 2 of 240, 2 of 200, 2 of 190, 4 of 180, 7 of 160, 15 of 150, 10 of 140, 5 of 130, 13 of 120, 6 of 110, and 16 of 100 tons. In 1754, Bristol had 300 ships engaged in foreign trade, besides coasters. It is probable that, by 1760, London possessed nearly 2,000 vessels, whilst the other ports had risen in proportion.

Temp. GEORGE III.

Roads repaired, and

Canals constructed.

Whilst war prevailed in the latter years of George II. and the earlier days of George III., the English appear to have applied themselves to the improvement of their internal communications. New roads were constructed and old roads repaired, and the advantages of inland water carriage beginning to be appreciated, attention was turned to the construction of canals. The first great work of this sort, the superb canal constructed by Brindley, for the Duke of Bridgwater, for the conveyance of coal from his estate at Worsley into Manchester, was opened in

July, 1761. At a somewhat later date, this canal was extended to Liverpool, and made applicable to passenger traffic between Liverpool and Manchester.

State of Trade, A.D. 1760.

The trade of England at the commencement of the reign of George III. had reached a very high point. Our imports in the year 1760 amounted to 10,683,595*l.* and our exports to 15,781,175*l.* Our principal imports, moreover, were from our own possessions in the East and West Indies and America, whilst our largest exports were to Germany, Holland, Portugal, Spain, and India. Peace with France being concluded at Paris early in 1763, business immediately increased; the imports of that and the succeeding year being as follows:—

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1763 . .	£12,568,927 . .	£15,578,943
1764 . .	11,250,660 . .	17,446,306

Differences between England and her Colonies, A.D. 1764.

At this time occurred the first differences between England and her colonies, in consequence of England endeavouring to apply the operation of a Stamp Act to America. The colonists destroyed the whole of the stamped paper, and entered into an agreement to import no more goods from Great Britain. In order to carry out this resolution, a society was established at New York for the protection of arts, commerce and manufactures, and the colonists began to apply themselves to manufacturing industry. The export trade of England to the American colonies consequently experienced a very large decline in 1765; and trade became greatly deranged. Petitions were presented to Parliament from all the commercial and manufacturing communities complaining of distress, and in 1766 the Legislature found itself obliged to repeal the Stamp Act, a measure which was hailed in London with great demonstrations of public rejoicing. Our imports and exports, which had sunk considerably, speedily exhibited an increase.

Parliament repeals the Stamp Act, A.D. 1765.

	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1765	£11,812,144	£15,763,867
1766	12,456,764	15,188,668
1767	13,097,153	15,090,000
1768	13,116,280	16,620,132

Although the Parliament removed the Stamp Act, they still insisted on maintaining certain duties on colonial imports. This caused great dissatisfaction in America, where a large party continued to discourage the use of British goods. The increase of trade was consequently not progressive, and, in 1770, "the merchants trading to America" presented a petition to Parliament, setting forth "the great losses they sustained by the interruption of their trade in consequence of the late laws." Parliament reconsidered and repealed some of the duties;* but the duty on tea they still permitted to remain in force. It is curious that the Act repealing the duties was brought into Parliament on the 5th March, the very evening on which a riot broke out at Boston, in which the first blood was shed in the quarrel between Great Britain and her colonies.

But insists on the Tea duty, A.D. 1770.

Irritation of the Colonists.

Great irritation resulted from the perpetuation of this claim to tax the colonists, and the British admiral in America found it necessary to place armed vessels at certain places in order to suppress smuggling and protect trade. At Providence, Rhode Island, the activity of the officer who commanded one of these vessels so provoked the people, that a party of them boarded the schooner on the night of the 10th June, 1772, took the crew out of her, and set her on fire. This affront was highly resented at home, whilst in America it served to widen the breach between the colony and the mother-country.

The East India Com-

The year 1771 had been a year of large speculation.

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* 10 Geo. III. c. 17.

The imports had risen on the year preceding from 16,000,000*l.* to upwards of 19,000,000*l.* The consequence was a reaction, and 1772 was a year of bad trade. The East India Company participated in the general distress, in consequence principally of their wars and heavy expenditure in India; and being unable to maintain their high dividends (which had reached 12½ per cent.), they petitioned Parliament in 1773 for some assistance. They obtained an Act which, together with pecuniary aid, permitted them to export their teas to all parts of the world free of duty. In August, 1773, having then 17,000,000 lb. of tea on hand, a majority of the Company decided at a meeting to ship consignments of tea to America, although very many arguments were used against it; and several vessels were chartered in London to carry out these teas to different colonial ports.

pany permitted to export tea to America, A.D. 1773.

Now, for some years, the colonists had taken scarcely any of the Company's tea, but had procured their tea from foreign markets. It had been said by some that this conspiracy against the Company's trade was the cause of the Company's distress; and this idea was, of course, very pleasing to the vanity of the colonists. When, therefore, they heard that the Company and the mother-country were about to relieve themselves from their difficulties by sending tea to America on which an import duty was to be paid by the colonists, their wrath broke forth into a flame, and they determined to prevent the tea from being sold or even landed.

The Colonists refuse to receive it,

Accordingly, on the arrival of three tea ships at Boston, the people of that town assembled. Following the example set at Providence, a number of men, disguised as Mohawk Indians, boarded the ships in the night-time, and without offering any violence to the vessels or seamen, discharged the whole of the cargoes

and discharge the tea into Boston Bay.

overboard, and then went quietly on shore. This occurred on the 18th December, 1773.

Such tea ships as arrived at Boston afterwards returned directly to England with their cargoes. At New York a parcel of tea was landed under the guns of a ship-of-war; but the colonists insisted on its being locked up from being sold. At Philadelphia orders were issued to the pilots to conduct no tea ship up the river; and at Charlestown the example of Boston was followed by discharging the tea into the sea.

Parliament deprives Boston of its privileges as a port.

In consequence of these outrages the Imperial Parliament passed an Act (June 1, 1774) depriving Boston of its privileges as a port.* On the 5th of September following, a "congress of delegates of the British "colonies in America" was held at Philadelphia. Their first act was to issue an address to the people of Great Britain, "their friends and fellow-subjects." Their next was to revive the non-importation regulations of 1764. They resolved to import no goods whatever from Great Britain—to desist from the slave-trade—to increase the breed of sheep, and to uphold to public odium any one who, in consequence of the scarcity of goods, should demand extravagant prices. The Congress ordered an estimate of the population of the Associated Provinces, which showed them to amount to 3,026,000 people. Soon after, they opened a commerce with France and Holland.

The Colonists resolve to receive no British goods.

Parliament refuses them the right to trade, A.D. 1775.

On this being known in England, Parliament passed Acts restraining the American provinces from trading with any foreign country; † but before the passing of these Acts was known in America, the impending cloud had burst in deeds of open hostility. The war broke out by the seizure of some ammunition and stores near Boston, in April, 1775. In the July following the Congress of the "United States of

A Congress declares the inde-

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* 14 Geo. III. c. 9.

† 15 Geo. III. cc. 10, 18.

America" declared their independence, which was confirmed by a formal proclamation, issued on the 4th July, 1776.

pendence of the United States.

Effect of the war.

The immediate effect of this war upon British commerce was novel and peculiar. It had been predicted that the refusal of the Americans to consume British articles would be followed by serious results to British exports. But this did not prove to be the case. It was speedily discovered that the manufactures of England were now the best and the cheapest in the world; and accordingly the exports of Great Britain were not immediately affected, but were only directed into other channels.* But upon the shipping of England the result was unexpected. Our shipping had greatly increased, and we were now carrying on a large transit trade. The Americans, not being blockaded in their ports, fitted out numbers of small privateers, with which they infested every sea; and finding shelter and even encouragement in the ports of France and Holland, they were even able to make captures on the coast of England itself. The consequence of this was especially serious to our West India trade. So many ships from the islands fell into the hands of the Americans, that the insurance on homeward-bound West India vessels rose, in 1777, to the high rate of 23 per cent. The result altogether was so serious, that in that year the river Thames was

American privateering.

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* France granted a sum of money to Congress for clothing the American troops. Mr. Laurence, jun. was entrusted with the duty of providing the cloth, and instead of laying out the money in France, he bought English cloth in Holland, from whence he exported it to America. The French Minister was instructed to complain of this transaction to Congress, as ungrateful and injurious to France; but Mr. Laurence justified himself, by saying that it was his duty to do the best he could with the money, and that the English cloths were much better than the French at the same price. It was not until the year before the close of the war that Congress was able effectually to prevent the introduction of British goods into America, which they did at last by a law which rendered them liable to seizure and forfeiture, wherever found (*vide* Lord Sheffield's Observations on the Commerce of the American States, p. 10).

crowded with foreign vessels loading for various parts of the world with British cargoes, the shippers of which were afraid to trust their property in British vessels.

France joins America, A.D. 1778.

In 1778 France joined America, and laid an embargo on all English shipping in her ports. The House of Lords at this time appointed a Committee on the state of the nation, before which the merchants complained of the severe losses they had sustained by the war. It was estimated that 733 vessels had been captured, of the value of 2,600,000*l.* The African trade had been almost destroyed. Sugar and other West India commodities had doubled in price, as well as all kinds of naval stores. The number of American privateers was stated to be 173, carrying 2,556 guns, and nearly 14,000 men. On the other hand it was stated that we had captured 900 American vessels, and had destroyed their fishery; but it is obvious that this could give very little consolation to the British merchants who had suffered.

Parliament empowers Commissioners to treat.

The consequence of all this was that Parliament empowered the King to appoint commissioners to go to America, and there to treat "with any persons "whatsoever for the redress of grievances supposed "to exist in the government of the colony." * Five commissioners were appointed, and went out. But, as in all these cases, the concession was "TOO LATE." Congress, flushed with its successes, determined not to enter into any negotiations, except as an independent State, and the commissioners soon returned home.

Commercial apprehensions.

The Channel being covered with a French fleet, in 1778, the most serious apprehensions were entertained for the safety of two fleets of East India, and two fleets of West India ships on their way home, these fleets constituting the great bulk of British trade, and being of large value. Happily, on the 27th July, Admiral Keppel was able to bring the French fleet to an action off Brest, and to force them to retreat into that port. The British ships from all quarters of the world consequently arrived in the Thames and other ports in safety, and Admiral Keppel, having refitted his fleet at Plymouth, rode triumphant in the British Channel, and made captures of a large number of French vessels, entirely reversing the conditions of the parties, and inflicting damage to French commerce to the extent of 80 or 100 millions of livres.*

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* 18 Geo. III. c. 13.

Admiral Keppel's action.

The Dutch at this time insisted on their right, as a neutral nation, to carry supplies to France. To this Great Britain objected, and made seizure of Dutch vessels wherever they were found. On July 1, 1780, a Dutch fleet of merchantmen, protected by five ships of war, was met off Portland by a fleet under Commodore Fielding, who requested permission to examine the merchant ships. This being refused, he sent his boats, which were fired upon by the Dutch; whereupon Commodore Fielding fired a shot at the Dutch admiral, who immediately fired a broadside. The compliment was returned, and the Dutch admiral struck his flag. The merchant vessels

Dutch commerce interrupted, A.D. 1780.

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* This is the estimate of the Abbé Raynal (*vide* Hist. Phil. et Polit. vol. ix. p. 216). The value of one of the captures, the *Modeste*, from China, laden with tea, and taken by H.M.S. *Porcupine*, was estimated at 300,000*l.* The *Gaston*, another Indiaman, taken by two privateers from Liverpool, was worth 500,000*l.* Forty sail of French West India ships were captured worth 15,000*l.* each. Liverpool at this time did a flourishing trade in privateering. Between August, 1778, and April, 1779, she fitted out no less than 120 privateers, measuring 30,787 tons, carrying 1,986 guns, and 8,754 men. When a carrying trade is destroyed, a few guns and ammunition in a fast ship, convert her instantly into a privateer. The East India Company at this time fitted out three ships with seventy-four guns each, and presented them to the Government as an addition to the navy. They were called, in honour of the three presidencies, the *Ganges*, the *Carnatic*, and the *Bombay Castle*. The Company offered a bounty for 6,000 seamen to man these and other vessels. Their patriotic example was followed by several other communities, both in building ships and raising men. Indeed, great exertions were everywhere made to protect British commerce on the seas.

were detained as prizes, but the Commodore refused to make prizes of the Dutch men-of-war. They therefore hoisted their flags again, but accompanied their vessels to Spithead, whither they were carried. This affair incensed the Dutch exceedingly, and they vehemently demanded satisfaction, which the British refused to give them. But this state of things led to declarations on the part of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark—

> "I. That neutral ships shall enjoy a free navigation, even from port to port, and on the coasts of the belligerent powers.
>
> "II. That all effects belonging to the subjects of belligerent powers shall be looked upon as free on board such neutral ships, except only such goods as are stipulated as contraband."

The "Armed Neutrality."

The declaration, of which these are the principal points, was called the "Armed Neutrality." The Dutch assented to it in November, 1780, but the effect of their declaration of assent was neutralized by an incident which occurred about the same time. Mr. Laurens, previously President of Congress, had been sent from America to Holland, in an American vessel, as ambassador to the States-General. The ship in which he embarked was captured by an English vessel off Newfoundland, and amongst Mr. Laurens' papers was found a recent treaty of commerce, signed in September, 1778, between the United States and Holland. England immediately demanded satisfaction of the Dutch, but they being in no hurry to comply with the demand, on December 20th England declared war, and seized all the Dutch vessels in her ports.

War with Holland.

England was now at war with four nations—with France, Spain, Holland, and America. Great as was her power at sea, it could scarcely be expected, nor was it for the interest of nations, or of the world, that this state of things should long continue. The commerce and manufactures of the country were distressed; the exports had sunk from 17,288,000*l.* in 1774, to 11,332,000*l.* in 1781. Yet, strange to say, the reaction which began at this time to set in, and which ultimately brought about a peace, arose less from the distresses than from the successes of England.

Capture of St. Eustatia, A.D. 1781.

In the West Indies, close to St. Christopher's, there is a small island, scarcely known to us in the present day, called the island of St. Eustatia. It is only five or six miles long, destitute of springs, and little else than a huge volcanic mountain. From the year 1600 St. Eustatia was successively in the possession of the Dutch, the French, and the English; and at the treaty of Ryswick it came into the possession of the Dutch again, and remained theirs until this war. Having determined to make war with the Dutch, the English Government sent out instructions to Admiral Rodney, who commanded the British fleet in the West Indies, to seize this island; and in February, 1781, he invested St. Eustatia with his fleet, and seized the possession, which, although strong, was defenceless against his forces. As a neutral port, St. Eustatia had become, during the progress of the war, a great depot for merchandise, and Rodney found not only its warehouses crammed with goods, but 250 merchantmen ready for sea. He seized all the merchandise and shipping, and the value of his capture was supposed to amount to 6,000,000*l.* sterling. In the result, however, it proved that a very large proportion of this property belonged to British merchants, either in England or the West Indies. They applied to Rodney to give it up, but he answered them very cavalierly, expressing his surprise that any British merchants should have placed their property in a position in which it could be made the means of afford-

Its effect on British commerce.

ing succour to the enemy. The merchants commenced actions against him, and petitioned Parliament for redress; and their complaints were advocated by Mr. Burke, who strongly inveighed against the seizure. The matter would, no doubt, have gone much further than it did, but for subsequent events. In November, 1781, the Marquis de Bouillé, at the head of 2,000 men, embarked from Guadaloupe, surprised St. Eustatia, and took it for the French; and, shortly after, the Comte de Grasse, who commanded the French fleet in the West Indies, having prepared an expedition to seize Jamaica, Admiral Rodney met him, and destroyed his fleet, thereby preserving that important island to the British. This double event set aside all parliamentary consideration of the claims of the British merchants, and Lord Rodney, instead of being considered a robber, came to be regarded as a hero. The commercial loss, however, was very great, and the nation complained of it the more bitterly because Rodney sold the property he seized by auction for less than one-fourth of its value, on the island of St. Eustatia, so that it passed, on the recapture of that island, into the hands of the French and Americans, who were consequently supplied with British stores at one-quarter of their value.

General clamour for peace.

England was not the only country which suffered by the proceedings in the West Indies. The loss which the commerce of the Dutch sustained was so severely felt by them, that Russia and Sweden interposed to bring about an accommodation between that country and England. The King declined their intervention; but the nation was now very clamorous for peace, and the other belligerent powers were believed to be equally tired of the war. The French had captured several West India islands, but their commerce had suffered severely, many of their merchants were ruined, and even their national credit began to be affected by their own expenses and their supplies to America. Except in the taking of Minorca, the Spaniards had only obtained barren advantages. The Dutch, in two years, had lost many of their best trading settlements and nearly all their trade, and had sunk their country into the condition of a province of France. The Americans had objects to gain irrespective of their European allies; but the industry and commerce of America could not be developed whilst war lasted, and, provided her independence was obtained, she could not do better than secure peace. England had, perhaps, suffered as little as any of the parties to the war; but she had accumulated an enormous debt. Thus the belligerent nations were all anxious to bring about a peace; the preliminary articles of which were signed at Paris on the 20th January, 1783, England consenting to recognize the independence of the United States.

Peace re-established.

The balance of trade, which had gone against England for several years, immediately readjusted itself, and the imports, which had sunk to 10 millions in 1782, sprung up to 15¼ millions in 1784; and the exports from 13 millions to 15 millions. The following table gives a view of the trade of the nation from the commencement to the close of this great war:—

Trade of England during this war.

YEAR.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1774	£14,477,876	£17,288,486
1775	14,815,855	16,326,363
1776	12,443,434	14,755,703
1777	12,643,831	13,491,006
1778	11,033,898	12,253,890
1779	11,435,264	13,530,702
1780	11,714,966	13,698,177
1781	12,722,862	11,332,295
1782	10,341,624	13,009,458
1783	13,122,235	14,681,494
1784	15,272,877	15,101,491

Improvements in the arts and sciences.

The period during which England was oppressed by this war will always be memorable in its history, not only on account of the war itself, but on account of the improvements in the practical arts and sciences which now began to dawn. It was in 1775 that Watt obtained from Parliament the extension of his privilege for the invention of the steam-engine, for which he had taken out a patent fourteen years previously, but without being able to make his project practically beneficial. The working of iron was now also brought to a great state of perfection, and became an object of national importance. The great guns, bored for the first time with a drill by the Carron Company, were exported to Russia and other countries in quantities so considerable that precautions were taken by Government to prevent their falling into the hands of the enemy. Caslon, in 1778, greatly improved the founding of types, which we had previously obtained from France, but which we now began to export as a manufacture of our own. Verdigris, which we had previously imported from the South of France, became a manufacture of England about 1781.* In 1784 Mr. Palmer introduced improvements into the system of the post-office, which rendered the English mail-coach the most rapid postal conveyance of Europe: and 1785 set in general motion the machinery for spinning cotton, which Arkwright had invented some years previously, by which the price of every description of cotton goods was immediately reduced, and the British manufacture greatly extended.†

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* Verdigris is extensively used by painters, and in dyeing; also to some extent in medicine. It is formed by the corrosion of copper with fermented vegetables. At Montpellier they use to form this substance, the refuse of Languedoc wine; in England, the refuse of cider.

† In less than two years after the expiry of Arkwright's patent, no less than 143 cotton spinning mills were erected in Great Britain, affording employment to

These are only a few of the improvements applied at this period to our manufactures, machinery, and motive power. It is curious to consider how they aided and assisted each other. Immediately at the close of the war, capital being released and commerce re-opened, so great a disposition was evinced by the people to avail themselves of these improvements, that from 1785 we may fairly date the commencement of the manufacturing era of the nation.

Captain Cook's voyages.

It was during the same period of war that Captain Cook prosecuted his voyages round the world, and made the useful discoveries which are associated with his name. England took advantage of those discoveries soon after the restoration of peace, by sending out Captain Arthur Phillip of the Royal Navy, with a fleet of transports, a body of convicts, and a stock of horses, cows, sheep, goats, rabbits, and poultry, to form the settlement of New South Wales. He arrived at Botany Bay in January, 1788, but not liking that harbour removed to Port Jackson, the next harbour to the northward, where he established his colony.*

Settlement of New South Wales.

Rapid development of commerce, 1785—1792.

From the restoration of peace until 1793, commerce rose to a great height. The imports, which were 16¼ millions in 1785, exceeded 19½ in 1792; and the

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at least 350,000 people. The value of our cotton manufactures exported in 1780, was £355,000. In 1787, it exceeded a million; and in 1860, the declared value exceeded FORTY MILLIONS!

* In the present day, when our ships are returning from New South Wales laden with gold, and wool, and other precious goods, we can appreciate the importance of this settlement; though for many years it was of no value to commerce. An account of the commerce of Great Britain, in the year 1800, thus refers to the trade of our great Australian colonies:—

"NEW HOLLAND.

"EXPORTS.—A little wood (wool ?); some birds.

"IMPORTS.—Wrought iron; woollen, silk, cotton, and linen goods; hardware; "some provisions, spirits and wine, all in small quantities."

In 1860, the declared value of our exports to Australia was nearly £10,000,000; whilst the official value of our imports (*exclusive of gold*) exceeded five millions and a half.

exports during the same period rose from 16 millions to nearly 25. Our internal means of communication by canals were most largely increased. London, during this interval, was united with the Severn and with the Mersey by a splendid system of inland navigation. Inland water communication was, in fact, developed throughout the nation. But in January, 1793, King Louis XVI. was beheaded in France, and on the 1st July following, the National Convention of France declared war against England. The funds immediately felt the shock, and the effect on commerce was a violent collapse. There immediately occurred the first of those panics, of which there have ever since been periodical recurrences. Many mercantile houses in London of the most extensive dealings failed, and their fall involved numbers of their correspondents and connexions in all parts of the country. Large sums of money had been invested during the peace in machinery and canal shares, but the value of such property appeared to be annihilated in the general apprehensions. Mr. Pitt, the then Minister, was appealed to, and by his advice a meeting was held at the Mansion House, on the 23d April, 1793, when resolutions were adopted for the revival of commercial credit and the restoration of confidence. In consequence of this, Government agreed to issue 5,000,000*l*. in Exchequer Bills to merchants, traders, and bankers, on approved security, or the deposit of goods to the value of double the amount advanced—a measure which immediately restored confidence, and prevented further immediate mercantile disaster.

The French republic declares war, A.D. 1793.

Commercial panic.

Government interposes,

and restores confidence.

Despite the war, which had but little effect on English commerce, trade revived and steadily advanced until 1797, when its course was again interrupted by the want of coinage, which had made itself

Monetary difficulty, A.D. 1797.

felt throughout the country. The Bank of England had lent several millions of money to the Government for the purposes of the war; and they now found themselves unable to supply the wants of merchants. Representations were made to the Government, the result of which was a measure restricting the Bank from making any further payments in cash until the sense of Parliament could be taken. The currency of the country accordingly became a paper currency, based on national credit. The immediate effect of this panic was disastrous to trade; but it naturally revived when the circulating medium of the country was extended to meet its wants. The exports, which were 30½ millions in 1796, sunk to less than 29 millions in 1797, but reached 33½ millions in 1798. Such, indeed, was the elasticity of commerce in the latter year that the merchants, traders, and others of London, voluntarily subscribed the sum of 2,000,000*l.* to assist the Government in the war, which all classes in England were extremely anxious to bring to an end.

Exports and Imports.

From this time till the year 1800 trade continued wonderfully to expand, as the following table will show:—

YEAR.	IMPORTS.*	EXPORTS.*
1785	16,279,419	16,117,168
1786	15,786,072	16,300,730
1787	17,804,024	16,869,789
1788	18,027,170	17,472,238
1789	17,821,103	19,340,549
1790	19,130,886	20,120,121
1791	19,669,782	22,731,995

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* It is right to observe that the rates of valuation employed officially for computing the value of articles imported and exported, were fixed in 1694, and remained unaltered down to a recent period, so that the sums here given must not be supposed accurately to exhibit the selling value of goods exported and imported. The "official values," however, show the relative values of the imports and exports better, perhaps, than if the actual selling price of each article was taken as the basis of the computation, inasmuch as the selling value must necessarily be governed by supply and demand as well as by fluctuations in the value of money.

YEAR.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1792	19,659,358	24,905,200
1793	19,255,116	20,388,828
1794	22,276,915	26,748,083
1795	22,736,889	27,123,338
1796	23,187,319	30,518,913
1797	21,013,956	28,917,010
1798	27,857,889	33,591,777
1799	26,837,432	35,991,329
1800	30,570,605	43,152,019

Trade of London, A.D. 1800.

At the commencement of the present century the trade of the Port of London is reported to have been more extensive than at any previous period in the history of England. London carried on one-third of the trade of the empire; and the value of the floating property upon the Thames, forming its commerce, was estimated at no less than 70,000,000*l.* annually. It was found that the conveniences of the Port were utterly insufficient for its trade; that the landing wharves and quays and sufferance wharves together, were inadequate for the wharfage and warehousing of the goods landed and embarked: and that the depredations on property, consequent on the vast increase of shipping and the want of accommodation on the legal quays, rendered adjuncts to the Port absolutely necessary. In 1799, the West India merchants accordingly obtained an Act of Parliament to make docks, with legal quays, and wharves and warehouses, for the reception and discharge of the vessels in their trade; and from this period we may date another era in the commerce of the Port of London.

CHAPTER III.

THE PORT.

The Port of London.

THE limits of the Port of London were first defined in the reign of Charles II. Some uncertainty appears to have existed respecting those limits at previous periods.* Billingsgate and Queenhithe were, from very early periods, recognised landing places at which the King's Customs were collected; but as trade increased, it was found necessary to provide additional accommodation for landing goods in the Port, and other wharves and landing places were used, with the consent, apparently, of the authorities. This, however, gave rise to attempts to evade the payment of customs by shipping and landing at unrecognised places; to remedy which, a statute was passed† in the reign of Elizabeth, to compel all goods to be landed and shipped between sunrise and sunset in such open places as should be appointed by Royal Commission.‡

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* Sir Matthew Hale appears to have shared in this uncertainty. "A port of "the sea," he says, "includes more than the bare place where the ships unlade, "and sometimes extends many miles, as the Port of London anciently extended "to Greenwich, in the time of Edward I.; and Gravesend is also a member of it." He mentions Blackwall and Lea as other members of the port, and speaks of London as the *caput portûs* (De Port. Maris, c. ii.).

† 1 Elizabeth, c. 11.

‡ A Royal Commission was accordingly issued, which, under date 28 August, 1559, appointed the following to be general lading and discharging places for all kinds of goods :—

In consequence of the Fire of London, it was necessary to make new arrangements respecting the wharves and landing places. An Act was passed* empowering Commissioners to define the limits of ports, and to appoint open places for lading and discharging goods therein; and prohibiting the lading and discharging of ships elsewhere without the special *sufferance* and leave of the Commissioners of Customs.

as settled temp. CHAS. II.

The Commissioners appointed under this Act, made their certificate respecting London, on the 24th May, 1665, by which they not only assigned the boundaries of legal quays, but settled for the first time the precise limits of the Port, which they did as follows :—

"To prevent all future differences and disputes touching the extent and limits of the Port of London, and the many frauds and abuses which have been acted and committed as well upon and within the river of Thames, as without the mouth thereof, upon the sea, the said Port is declared to extend and to be accounted from the promontory or point called the NORTH FORELAND, in the Isle of Thanet, and from thence northward in a supposed right line to the opposite promontory or point called THE NASE, beyond the Gun-fleet, upon the coast of Essex, and continued westward, through the river Thames and the several channels, streams, and rivers falling into it, to LONDON BRIDGE; saving the usual and known rights, liberties, and privileges to the ports of Sandwich and Ipswich, and either

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Old Wool Quay,
New ditto,
Galley Quay,
Andro. Morris' Quay,
Amb. Thurston's Quay,
Rauff's Quay,
Cocks's Quay,
Dyce Quay,
Bear Quay,
Somers' Quay,
Botolph's Wharf,
Sab's Quay,
Young's Quay,
Crown Quay,
Smart's Quay,
Fresh Wharf,
Gaunt's Quay.

Billingsgate was appointed only for fish, corn, salt, stones, victuals, and fruit (groceries excepted).

The Three Cranes for wine and oil, and together with Johnston's Quay and Busher's Wharf, for pitch, tar, flax, &c.

The Bridge House for corn and other provisions; and

The Steelyard for Merchant Strangers free of that Guild.

Wood, coals, and beer might be landed or shipped in any place in presence of the searcher.

* 13 & 14 Chas. II. c. 11.

of them, and the known members thereof, and of the customs, comptrollers, members, and other deputies within the said ports of Sandwich and Ipswich, and the several creeks, harbours, and havens to them or either of them respectively belonging, within the counties of Kent or Essex."

The legal Port of London is therefore from LONDON BRIDGE to the NORTH FORELAND.

The Legal Quays.

The wharves set out by these Commissioners were now assigned as Legal Quays,* and exact metes and bounds for each were set forth. The Commissioners also proposed plans for carrying into effect a clause of the Rebuilding Act, which provided that there should be a quay forty feet broad, on the north side of the Thames, from London Bridge to the Temple, to be used as a public and open wharf. It did not, however, suit the views of parties interested, that this open space and public wharf should be provided; and this part of the Commissioners' certificate was, therefore, never carried into effect.†

Sufferance Wharves.

Up to the commencement of the present century, the arrangements made by this Commission of King Charles II. were the only statutory arrangements respecting the Port of London. From time to time, however, in order to meet the exigencies of commerce, the Commissioners of Customs, under the provisions of the Act of Charles II., permitted other wharves and landing places to be used under certain conditions; and having, as the Act provided, "the special sufferance and leave of the Commissioners," these landing places came to be classified as "*Sufferance Wharves.*" Under this designation they are to this day distinguished from the "LEGAL QUAYS;" though for the most part both classes of landing and shipping places have now common privileges.

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* They were by name:

Brewer's Quay,
Chester's Quay,
Galley Quay,
Wool Dock,
Custom House Quay,
Porteus Quay,
Bear Quay,
Sab's Quay,
Wiggan's Quay,
Young's Quay,
Ralph's Quay,
Dice Quay,
Smart's Quay,
Somers' Quay,
Lyon's Quay,
Botolph Wharf,
Hammond's Quay,
Gaunt's Quay,
Cock's Quay,
Fresh Wharf, and
Billingsgate.

Several of these Quays were purchased for the site of the present Custom House.

† The provision made by Parliament for the vacant space for this open wharf was repealed by 1 & 2 Geo. IV. c. 89.

The Thames Conservancy.

It may be desirable to observe that the legal Port of London, thus constituted and established under the Act of Charles II., is to be distinguished from the Port of London as defined for the Conservancy of the Thames, which, under very ancient Charters and Acts of Parliament, was vested in the Corporation of the City of London. The jurisdiction of the Thames Conservancy extends from Staines to Yantlett, or Yauntlet Creek, in the river Medway; and operates upon all that relates to the course of the stream of the Thames itself, and all its "issues, branches, and "ground overflown so far as the water ebbeth and "floweth." The privileges of the Corporation as conservators of the Thames, Parliament has thought it necessary, very recently, to take away from them, and to vest in an official commission, of which the Lord Mayor is chairman.* The powers which were exercised by the Corporation from time immemorial, are vested in this Commission. They are empowered to regulate the fishing in the Thames, to remove its obstructions, cleanse the river, repair its banks and breaches, license wharves, piers, stairs and other projections, and remove such as are unlicensed, grant licences for the erection of mills and waterworks, and punish all offenders.

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* The Thames Conservancy Act, passed in 1857. This Act appears to have been a great and most unnecessary stretch of the power of the Government, and a most unwarrantable interference with ancient privileges and powers. The policy of the Government of the period was inimical to the Corporation of London, with which it had striven to interfere in various matters, in which the citizens had proved too strong for the state. Amongst other things, a great suit had been pending between the Crown and the City for many years, respecting the right to the bed and soil of the Thames and the foreshore of seas, estuaries, and rivers. The cost of this suit was very heavy; and the City found itself involved in a litigation, from which it could derive no profit for itself, on behalf of all the owners of soil on the coasts of England and Wales. Both parties were anxious to settle this suit; and one of the stipulations of the settlement was the cession of the Conservancy of the Thames by the City of London to a mixed Commission. But it may be a question whether the time will not arrive when both parties—the Crown and the City of London—will find cause to regret having come to this arrangement.

The Port as regulated for other special purposes.

The Port of London, for legal purposes, may also be distinguished from the Port as it is constituted for purpose of revenue, port-dues, and accommodation. Thus, as regards the arrangements of the Port for colliers, the Port is taken to commence at Gravesend Reach, above which no vessel laden with coal is allowed to pass without a Harbour Master's certificate. For the purposes of ballasting, &c., under the regulations of the Trinity House, the limits of the Port are differently defined. But these are points which will be subject of subsequent consideration.

The Warehousing system.

The warehousing system, which is now an important part of the business of the docks, quays, and wharves, commenced, as an official document* informs us, about the year 1714.

> "The article of tobacco was then allowed to be warehoused on payment of a small portion of the import duty which was repaid on exportation, and the tobacco was permitted to be shipped without further charge. This regulation continued until 1789, when the duties on tobacco again became the subject of Parliamentary consideration, and many new regulations were then established, principally affecting its internal removal; but tobacco and snuff were in that year, for the first time, allowed to be exported from the warehouses without the payment of any part of the duty.
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> "In 1742, rum, the produce of the British sugar plantations, was allowed to be warehoused for months without the payment of the excise duty. In 1760, an Act was passed expressly to encourage the exportation of such rum, and the shipment was

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* Report of the Commissioners of Inquiry into the Customs and Excise, dated 3d October, 1818.

permitted without payment of any duty of excise; the customs duty, which was small, continued payable in the first instance, but was allowed to be drawn back on exportation.

"In 1765, rice was allowed to be warehoused, and in 1767 cocoa-nuts and coffee on payment of a small duty, which duty, on such cocoa-nuts and coffee as were the produce of the British plantations was, on the exportation of the goods, wholly drawn back."

These regulations were intended only to relieve our merchants from the inconvenience of paying duties on goods which were ultimately to be sent to a foreign market. The plan of rendering Great Britain a place of depôt for merchandize in general, was not then in contemplation.

Proposed extension of the Legal Quays

In 1762, the principal merchants of London represented to the Crown that the Port of London was overcrowded, and the legal quays and sufferance wharves very insufficient for the purposes of trade. The Crown accordingly issued a Commission, in pursuance of the statute of Charles II., directing certain persons therein named to assign and set out other fit and convenient places as legal quays. The Commissioners made a return of a large extent of ground, including the Tower ditch, as "a fit and convenient place:" but the vested interest (*i.e.* the Wharfingers) having obtained a *quo warranto* from the Court of King's Bench, succeeded in quashing this return on the ground of uncertainty—the Court, however, expressing its opinion "that the "expedience of an extension was wholly in the breast "of the Crown."

frustrated by the vested interests. A.D. 1762.

Further extension

This affair caused great dissatisfaction, and, after sundry proceedings before the Lords of the Treasury, and much dispute with the Commissioners of Customs, the Crown was prevailed on, in 1765, to issue another Commission; and the Commissioners made a return, assigning a certain spot in the parish of St. Katherine's, between Irongate Stairs and the King's brewhouse, for the purpose of a legal wharf; "such extension being necessary and expedient." But in the ensuing term, application was made to the Court of Queen's Bench to stop the filing of this return, and the case having been argued by counsel on behalf of the wharfingers and the inhabitants of St. Katherine's on the one side, and by counsel for the merchants and the commissioners on the other, the Court decided against filing the return, on the ground "that the places assigned for the new wharves were *not open places*" (as required by the Act of Queen Elizabeth). Thus were the good intentions of the Crown, to provide adequately for the business of the Port, frustrated by the proceedings of interested parties.

proposed and defeated, A.D. 1765.

Between 1765 and 1798, various committees were appointed by Parliament to inquire and propose plans for the relief of the commerce of the Port. The inconvenience to navigation and trade, consequent upon the crowded state of the Port; the insufficient accommodation afforded by the quays and wharves; the inconveniences, and loss of property arising from the necessity of loading from and into lighters, were all fully established. The grievance was felt to be intolerable; yet so powerful were the vested interests that for many years nothing was attempted.

Parliamentary inquiries as to the state of the Port.

The "legal quays," at this time, extended only 1,419 feet on the north side of the river, between London Bridge and the Tower. The "sufferance wharves" occupied about twice that quantity of lineal space. But it was calculated, in 1795, that if all the wharves on the river, with their warehouses, were appropriated to the article of sugar alone, they would be insufficient. The legal quays could only store 32,000 hogsheads, the sufferance

Insufficiency of the Legal Quays, &c. for the commerce of the Port.

wharves only 60,200; whilst it sometimes happened that 120,000 hogsheads arrived in the course of three months. The sugars, at this time, were piled to the height of six or eight tiers of hogsheads, exposed to be wetted by the rain, and plundered by numbers of eager, watchful, and experienced thieves.

Depredations consequent on this inconvenience.

The amount of depredation on the river prior to the establishment of the docks would appear incredible, did we not bear in mind the inconveniences to which shipping in the river were exposed. All their cargoes had to be discharged, in the middle of the stream, into barges, lighters, punts, lugger boats, billy-boys, and other small craft which were employed in bringing the commodities from the ships to the quays and wharves. From 3,000 to 4,000 craft were employed in this service, besides many thousand labourers, who were under little or no control. The police was necessarily very imperfect, and a vast amount of dishonesty and crime developed itself in connexion with the commerce of London, which no ordinary precaution could meet. Mr. Colquhoun, a police magistrate who devoted himself to the subject, describes the depredators of various classes as follows:—

> "The 'river pirates,' who were connected with the marine store shops; they reconnoitred by day and made their attacks in armed boats on dark nights, cutting adrift the lighters and barges, and taking out the merchandize. The 'night plunderers'—watermen of the lowest class, who attacked unprotected lighters and made over the stolen goods to receivers. The 'light horsemen'—comprising mates of ships and revenue officers, who would wink at the robbery of the ship, in which coopers, porters, and watermen take part. The 'heavy horsemen'—porters and labourers, who wore an inner dress, called a guernsey, provided with pockets wherein to stow away small quantities of colonial produce, whilst portering about the ships and quays. Besides these organized depredators, the wine

coopers pilfered whilst opening and refining casks; the mudlarks picked up stolen bits, which others by concert threw into the mud; the rat-catchers employed on board the ships carried away produce; the lightermen concealed goods whilst going from the ships to the quays; and the warehousemen, when sugar reached the warehouses, pilfered and sold the stolen sugar to small dealers at public-houses."

Wet Docks proposed.

In 1793, a plan was proposed for the construction of wet docks in the Thames, and, in 1795, the West India merchants, whose trade had very largely increased, appointed a committee to consider the most effectual remedy for the evils to which they were exposed. That committee reported—

> "That the existence of the West India trade at the Port of London is necessarily connected with a more adequate provision for the discharge of shipping, and the warehousing of produce, than the legal quays can possibly afford."

They recommended an application to Parliament, for the construction of wet docks, to be surrounded by wharves and warehouses, to be declared "legal" by Act of Parliament. They opened a subscription for a capital to carry on the work, which was filled in two days (22d and 23d December, 1795), to the amount of 800,000*l.*

Competing schemes.

Powerful as was this organization, it was by no means plain sailing, even for the West India merchants, to obtain a dock in London. The Corporation of the City of London had vested interests in the river and the wharfage, as they controlled the lighterage and port-dues of the Thames. They professed themselves naturally jealous of any measure which, by the removal of the shipping from the neighbourhood of London Bridge, might have an injurious effect upon the traders of the City. The Corporation, accordingly, proposed plans of their own to supply the admitted deficiency in the accommodation of the Port. In opposition to the West India Dock scheme they proposed a dock close to the City boundary, and (with a view to meet a desideratum, which the plans of the West India merchants would supply) they also proposed to cut a canal across the Isle of Dogs, "to provide for the inconvenience "occasioned by the circuit now performed by vessels "round that peninsula."

The Corporation, in fact, were not disinclined to get the docks of London into their own hands, and their design was, no doubt, to construct a very large dock in the Isle of Dogs, under the guise of a canal for navigation. Parliament, however, was scarcely inclined to place the dock-system of the Port in the hands of the Corporation; and yet the Corporation, allied with the then vested interests, was sufficiently strong in Parliament to defeat any body of merchants coming to it for powers. Three years elapsed before the matter was brought to a conclusion.

A Dock Act passed A.D. 1799.

It was not until 1799 that Parliament adjusted this conflict between the contending parties. They then passed an Act,* entitled "An Act for rendering "more commodious, and for better regulating the "Port of London," empowering the Lord Mayor, Aldermen, and Commons of the City of London to make a canal sufficiently large and deep to be navigated by ships, across the head of the peninsula called the Isle of Dogs. They vested the property in this canal in the Corporation, empowering them to grant licences to build on the adjacent ground. In consideration of the cost of the canal, and of the accommodation and advantage it would afford to the shipping and trade of the Port, they gave the Corporation a toll, to last fourteen years, of from 1*d.* to 3½*d.* per ton upon all vessels using the Port;

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* 39 Geo. III. c. 69.

fishing and passenger craft excepted. They awarded compensation to various parties, and amongst others to Lord Gwydir, who had a grant from the King of the profits arising from the use of all mooring chains within the Port. They then proceeded to provide for the "Incorporation of the West India Dock Company,"

The West India Dock Company.

"For the purpose of making wet docks with legal quays and wharves, and also warehouses attached to them, on the north side of the proposed canal in the Isle of Dogs, for the reception and discharge of vessels in the West India trade, whereby great accommodation will be given to the other shipping in the river, and the West India produce will be guarded from plunder and other damage."

Its obligations

The capital stock of the Dock Company thus created was fixed at 500,000*l.*, with power to increase it to 600,000*l.* The dividends were limited to 10 per cent. The Company was required to inclose its docks, wharves, and warehouses with a strong wall of brick or stone, not less than thirty feet high, surrounded by a ditch of at least twelve feet, constantly filled with water to the depth of six feet. Parliament gave the Company exclusive privileges for a period of twenty years. They provided that all vessels coming from the West Indies must discharge within these docks, and that the Commissioners of Customs might order other vessels to discharge there. All vessels bound for the West Indies were also obliged to take in their cargoes in the Company's docks, or else in the river below Blackwall. 6*s.* 8*d.* per ton register was fixed as the sum to be paid by each ship on entering the docks, and other dues for the use of the quays, wharves, cranes, and for landing, housing, weighing, and cooperage, according to the articles landed, those not enumerated to pay such rate as used to be paid within the Port of London.

and privileges.

Success of the West India Docks.

The docks were commenced in 1800, and were partially opened for business in August, 1802. It is not surprising that, with such provisions as those above recorded, the West India Docks proved immediately successful, and that for many years, after their first half-year, they should have paid a full 10 per cent. dividend, and have accumulated a vast fund besides.* But what is curious in this record is to observe the ultimate operation of this Act upon the various parties concerned. The Corporation of the City of London cut their "City Canal," which proved almost useless for the purpose for which it was designed. So few vessels, indeed, passed through it that it did not pay its working expenses; and, in 1829, the Corporation were glad to sell it to the West India Dock Company.† The West India Dock Company, on their part, although immediately benefited by the exclusive privileges they obtained, were ultimately seriously prejudiced thereby. By limiting themselves to West India produce, they excluded from their docks branches of trade of a more productive character, so that by the time their exclusive privileges expired they found that business they might well have carried on had passed into other hands, from which they have never since been able to obtain it. The consequence was that the West India Dock Company languished for many years after the expiration of their exclusive privileges. Considering the very small capital at which they stood, they, perhaps, would better have been without any exclusive privileges at all.

Failure of the City Canal.

Ultimate result of the privileges granted to the Docks.

The London Docks, A.D. 1800.

In 1800, parties who had felt with the Corporation of the City of London, the importance of retaining the trade within the City, went to Parliament for a Bill to make wet docks at Wapping, to be called the London Docks. The capital was 1,200,000*l.*, with power to borrow 300,000*l.* These docks, avoiding the West India Dock monopoly, were laid out for the reception of the produce of countries not included in the exclusive privilege of the other Company. Parliament granted an Act of Incorporation,* and directed that all ships entering the Thames, laden with wine, brandy, tobacco, and rice, should unload in these docks for a period of twenty-one years from the time of their completion, under penalty of forfeiture of the ship to the Crown, and 100*l.* from the owner and master. The London Docks were commenced in 1801, and finished in 1805. Being constructed on river-side property, not distant from the City boundary, their cost exceeded the original estimate; and, in 1804, an Act was obliged to be obtained to add 500,000*l.* to the capital. The 2,000,000*l.* thus created soon after became 3,000,000*l.*, and the capital has since been increased to nearly 5,000,000*l.*

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* In 1819 this fund amounted to 400,000*l.* The Company were then obliged by a Committee of the House of Commons to reduce their rates.

† Under the powers of an Act of Parliament, 10 Geo. IV. c. 130.

Considerations as to their cost, &c.

It is curious that the heavy cost necessarily entailed by constructing these docks in a crowded locality, and afterwards enlarging them to meet the requirements of commerce, does not appear to have been regarded as a difficulty at the time the docks were first proposed. They were objected to on the ground of their locality rendering them "inaccessible to the greater and more valuable part of the trade of the Port." The lightermen and pilots declared that it would be

> "Unsafe for loaded ships, drawing sixteen feet of water, to attempt navigating as far up the river as the proposed docks; that no prudent pilot would attempt to bring up such ships at any period of a neap tide; that they must wait upon an average eight or nine days for a spring tide to proceed up from

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* 39 & 40 Geo. III. c. 47.

Deptford, and that it would be highly imprudent to make the attempt even at spring tides."

All the difficulties thus started, have certainly proved illusory. The London Docks have always been able to receive vessels of the largest class. But the vast cost attending their works of construction and extension, and the proportionate outlay for repairs and maintenance, have certainly operated injuriously on the London Dock Company. It has never been able to pay an adequate dividend, except when its rates have been at a maximum, and hence, of all the dock companies, it has been the least able to bear the effects of competition.

The East India Docks. A.D. 1803.

In 1803, Parliament granted powers for the construction of another series of docks "for the accommodation of the East India shipping of the Port of London." * All vessels arriving in the Thames with cargoes of produce from any part of the East Indies or China, were obliged to discharge in these docks, and outward bound vessels to those countries were to take in their cargoes either in these docks or in the river below Limehouse Reach. For the protection of the London Dock Company, however, Parliament enacted that no vessel not being immediately come from, or being immediately bound to, the East Indies or China, should, under a penalty of 50*l*., enter the East India Docks, without the consent in writing of the Treasury.†

The Customs system, its effect on trade.

The shipping of the Port was thus provided with dock accommodation. But the new system introduced by the dock companies rendered necessary an alteration of the regulations of the Customs, which was productive of most important consequences.

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* 43 Geo. III. c. 176.

† The East India Dock Company was united with the West India Dock Company in 1838. The management is now vested in a joint Board of forty directors, of whom eight retire for a year, at the expiration of every fifth year.

Previous to this period, the duties on most goods imported had to be paid at the moment of importation; or a bond, with sufficient security, had to be given for their payment to the revenue officers. The inconvenience of this system was obvious. It crippled the resources of the merchant, and even, in some cases, actually prevented the country from being made an entrepôt for foreign merchandize. It was not always possible or easy to find sureties, especially for large amounts; and the merchant, in order to raise funds to pay the duties, was often obliged to sell his goods immediately on their arrival, when, perhaps, the market was already glutted. The system, moreover, had an obvious tendency to discourage trade. Competition was diminished in consequence of the larger amount of capital required for trading purposes; and the price of goods was enhanced by the amount of profit required on the capital advanced for payment of duties. In addition to all this the system tended to obstruct trade by preventing the resort of foreigners to our markets, for the difficulty of obtaining an equivalent drawback upon articles which had paid duty, rendered it difficult, if not impossible, to complete an assorted cargo of goods, and consequently hindered the importation of such as were not required for home consumption.

"Bonded Ware-houses" permitted, A.D. 1803.

The quays and wharves of the various docks having been declared "legal quays," and adequate warehouses having been constructed in which tobacco, wine, silk goods, and other commodities were allowed to be deposited under the custody of the officers of Customs, it became obvious that the facilities afforded to importers might, by a very slight modification of the law, be extended to exporters. Accordingly, an Act was passed * which laid the

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* 43 Geo. III. c. 132.

foundation of the system now in operation with regard to warehousing. It allowed goods intended for exportation to be deposited in warehouses appointed and licensed by the Commissioners of Customs. In the first instance, this privilege of bonded warehouses was limited to the Port of London, but at a later date it was widely extended; and by recent Acts * the system has been adapted to the commercial requirements of the nation.

Facilities thereby afforded.

By this most important arrangement, there can be no doubt that the trade of London largely benefited. The transactions of the merchant were greatly facilitated. He was able at once to pass property lying in the dock warehouses, by the simple transfer of a dock warrant, which, for all purposes of sale or exchange, is one of the most substantial securities that can be offered. Foreigners are, by these means, afforded facilities of purchasing under the most favourable circumstances, having not only the security of the dock companies for the goods themselves but for their exact quantities.

Docks on the south side of the river.

In 1810 Parliament passed an Act for the improvement and construction of docks, called the Commercial Docks, in the parish of Rotherhithe, on the south side of the Thames, with a view "to facili-"tate the discharge of ships and vessels laden with "timber, wood," &c. In the following year an Act was passed for completing and maintaining the East Country Dock in the same parish; and, about the same period, the Grand Surrey Canal Company, which had been incorporated by an Act of Parliament in 1801, was empowered to make a dock. Parliament, however, did not constitute the wharves belonging to these docks "legal quays;" on the contrary, it provided against the landing of any goods, except such as were

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* Especially by the Customs' Consolidation Act of 1853, 16 and 17 Vic. c. 107.

specified, without the special sufferance of the Commissioners of Customs. These docks have, consequently, been chiefly used, from the time of their construction, for the timber and grain trades. Their situation, on the south side of the river, precludes them, indeed, to a very great extent, from sharing in the general import and export trades of London.*

Expiration of the "Exclusive Privileges."

The Port of London remained in the position thus described until the year 1824, at which period the exclusive privileges granted by Parliament for twenty-five years to the West India Dock Company expired. The London Dock Company appears to have been hostile to the renewal of those privileges, and the West India Dock Company did not apply for their extension. The West India trade being, accordingly, thrown open, the London Dock Company readjusted their rates in order to obtain it. Whilst the monopoly of the three great dock companies had continued their rates were at the maximum, and their dividends had been proportionate. Now that their privileges were about to expire, it was natural that other parties should seek to share their profits.

The St. Katherine's Dock Company formed, A.D. 1823.

Accordingly, in 1823, a company, consisting of influential merchants, applied to Parliament for a Bill to enable them to construct docks on the site of the Hospital of St. Katherine, next the Tower, and to treat with the Master and Brethren of the Hospital for the exchange or purchase of lands. They represented to Parliament that—

"The commerce of the Port of London cannot receive its full share of advantage, unless the heavy rates and charges for the landing, housing, bonding, and shipping of goods, with which it is burdened, shall undergo material and permanent reduction; and increased accommodation for the loading and unloading of vessels be afforded."

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* The Commercial Dock Company obtained an Act, in 1851, enabling them to land and warehouse nearly every description of goods, if sanctioned by the Customs. Under the authority of this Act, they purchased the adjacent East Country Docks, and incorporated them into their system. Their returns, however, show that their business is almost exclusively limited to corn and timber. Of 1,200 vessels docked in 1858, only 49 contained any other loading.

Opposed by the London Dock Company.

In consequence, probably, of their case not being well prepared, the Company were obliged to withdraw their Bill in 1824, but they proceeded with it in 1825, when a curious incident occurred. The London Dock Company, which was for free trade whilst the exclusive privilege of the West India Dock Company existed, now declared itself strongly for the protection of its own interests. It most violently opposed the St. Katherine's by all the means in its power—and its power was by no means small. The London Dock Company denied that "any additional Docks were required by the state of the "commerce of the Port, by the burden of rates and "charges, by want of accommodation, or by want of "further competition amongst the Dock Companies." They represented that they had expended "an immense capital" in constructing bonded warehouses, that the same were insufficiently used, and that, in consequence, their dividend had not for five years exceeded 4½ per cent., whilst during several preceding years it was only 3 per cent. They averred that they were ready to appropriate fourteen additional acres of land in their possession for legal quays and warehouses whenever the same should be wanted; and they prayed Parliament "not to encourage and "sanction the expenditure of immense sums in the "construction of supernumerary rival docks, to the "serious detriment of commerce and shipping."

Proceedings in Parliament.

A practice had at this time grown up amongst parliamentary agents and solicitors, of presenting petitions to Parliament against private Bills at the very last moment, and in a very vague form—a practice which the House of Commons had endeavoured to remedy by a standing order passed in the preceding session. The London Dock Company state in a document they published on the subject* that they desired "to conform with the utmost strictness to this order."

> "Every part of the petition which had been prepared was examined by the Chairman and Secretary with a view of ascertaining with certainty, that every fact of the statements contained in it was capable of proof; and so minute and careful was this examination that the petition was not finally settled until ten o'clock at night. The following morning it was engrossed and put under the common seal of the Company, and the solicitor attended in the lobby of the House of Commons at four o'clock, for the purpose of meeting an honourable member by whom it was to have been presented; but, in consequence of the death of the Speaker's brother on the very day the petition was to have been presented, there was NO HOUSE, and the Company was deprived of the opportunity of having their petition presented and referred to the Committee."

The London Dock Company "too late."

The next day the counsel of the London Dock Company applied to the Committee to adjourn until the petition was before them; but the Committee being of opinion that the London Dock Company ought not to have delayed presenting this petition till the last moment, determined on proceeding with the consideration of the Bill. Its preamble set forth that it was desirable that docks "should be established on the "*principle of free competition in trade, and without* "*any exclusive privileges and immunities;*" and after the examination of two witnesses,† the Committee declared the preamble proved. On the following day, the petition having been presented to the House and referred to the Committee, the counsel for the London Dock Company again claimed to be heard by the Committee, but the Committee refused to hear them except on such clauses as had not been considered. Upon these facts, a motion for the recommittal of the bill was proposed in the whole House, but it was negatived by 91 to 20, and the House of Commons passed the Bill.

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* Case of the London Dock Company, by Mr. S. Cock, Secretary to the Company. London, 1825.

† Mr. (afterwards Sir John) Hall, the promoter and first Secretary of the Company, was the principal witness. The other was the engineer.

The St. Katherine's Company get their Bill, A.D. 1825.

These proceedings appear to have driven the London Dock Company almost to a state of desperation. They published a long statement of their grievances, but without effect. They then petitioned the House of Lords, and were heard before a Committee of that House; but the Lords followed the example of the Commons, and passed the Bill. The London Dock Company then made a great effort to prevent the St. Katherine's from obtaining their capital, but the Directorate of the new Company was very powerful,* and the amount they required, less than 2,000,000*l.*, was soon subscribed.

Site of the St. Katherine's Docks.

The St. Katherine's, therefore, were the first FREE docks in London. The Company arranged for an exchange of land with the Master and Brethren of the Hospital of St. Katherine;—providing them with a site for their establishment on the east side of the Regent's Park, where that hospital now stands.† They had, in addition, to purchase several wharves, and an extensive river-frontage on the Thames. In order to effect this, and to construct up-town warehouses, they were obliged to borrow 700,000*l.* in addition to their capital. 1,250 houses were pulled down, and 11,300 inhabitants removed, to clear the ground for this undertaking. Mr. Telford was the engineer, and Mr. Hardwick the architect. Much difficulty presented itself in dealing with the earth excavations, which were extremely heavy. Ultimately they were carried by water to Millbank, and employed to fill up the old reservoirs and cuts of the Chelsea Waterworks Company (who were removing at the time to a situation higher up the river), on the spot on which Eccleston Square and much of the south part of Pimlico has since been erected.

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* Mr. T. Tooke was chairman, Sir G. G. de H. Larpent, deputy; and on the Directorate were the eminent City names of Alexander, Barclay, Crawford, Glyn, Grenfell, Goldschmidt, Haldimand, Heath, Hodgson, Lubbock, Horsley-Palmer, Powles, Alderman Thompson, Wilson, &c.

† The Royal Hospital or Free Chapel of St. Katherine's at Tower, was founded in 1148 by Matilda, wife of King Stephen, re-founded by Eleanor, Queen Consort of Edward I., and enlarged by Philippa, wife of Edward III. The office of Master of this Hospital is the only preferment in the gift of the Queen Consort or Queen Dowager of England. The Hospital consists of a chapel, with a residence for the master and six brethren. The revenues may be applied for such good and charitable purposes as the royal patroness for the time being may direct.

The Victoria Docks, A.D. 1850.

Under the Warehousing Act,* the Commissioners of Customs were empowered very considerably to extend the bonded warehouse privilege. Various places were licensed as up-town warehouses, sufferance wharves, and bonded granaries, and the old restrictions to legal quays were almost wholly swept away. No other considerable change, however, occurred in the Port until 1850, when, in consequence of the enormously increased shipping trade of London, an application was made to Parliament for power to construct the Victoria Docks. These docks were projected on a very much more extensive scale than any previously constructed in London. Their cost of construction, however, was relatively very small. Being situated lower down the river, the land taken for these docks was valued at little more than agricultural prices; and the position being below high-water mark, instead of having to take down houses, and make deep excavations for dock purposes, as had been necessary in constructing the London and St. Katherine's, the Victoria Docks were formed by making little more than embankments and entrances. The Company's Act authorized it to raise 1,200,000*l.* by shares, and to borrow, if necessary, 400,000*l.* additional. The entire expenditure of the Company has, however, only amounted to about 1,000,000*l.*

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* 3 & 4 Will. IV. c. 57.

Advantages of the Dock system to the port.

The advantages which have accrued to the Port of London from the Dock system are obvious. That system has not only greatly extended the area of the Port, but it has provided despatch in landing and loading cargoes, security against plunder, facility of access to goods, classification of commodities, and, above all, that bonding system which is the keystone of our foreign trade. Without the docks, the business of the Port of London could not now be carried on; and the wonder is that, without that system, it ever reached the point it did.

Railways and Telegraphs in connexion with the Docks.

Railways and telegraphs have of late years very greatly facilitated the business of the docks. It was the want of facility of ready access and facile communication that gave the London Dock Company so much advantage over the West India, when the two Companies came into competition on the expiration of their exclusive privileges. No doubt, also, these considerations weighed with the promoters of the St. Katherine's Docks when they proposed to construct a very limited dock, at a vast cost, in the immediate proximity of London Bridge, instead of an extensive dock at a small cost, on a less expensive site. Even in those days it was endeavoured to be shown that the West India Docks were practically not more distant than the London from the centre of commerce. "I can go," said one of the witnesses before a Committee of the House of Commons, "from the Royal Exchange to Limehouse for a "shilling, and it costs me as much to go to the "London Docks." But he admitted that he occupied more time in the journey. But telegraphs and railways have now brought the different docks to a par as regards accessibility, if, indeed, they have not even given an advantage for many purposes to the docks most distant from the City.

Facilities they afford.

The railways which encircle the Victoria Docks, enable them to bring produce to their uptown warehouses, or to deliver it to the railway companies or to the London consumer, with greater facility and less loss of time—and in some cases even with less expense—than the same goods could be carted to the railway stations or elsewhere, from the London and St. Katherine's Docks, which are connected with no railway. The electric telegraph, of course, places all the companies on an equal footing with regard to messages; and in most other respects, the various docks of London stand on an equality. Their arrangements for docking, wharfing, warehousing, &c. are all first-class. The companies highest up the Thames have the smallest water space; but they possess the largest warehouse room. The companies lowest down the river possess the largest water space, and the smallest warehouse accommodation in their docks, but they supply this deficiency by providing large warehouse accommodation in the heart of London.* The use of hydraulic machinery was first introduced by the Victoria Dock Company, and was found so valuable, both in expediting the delivery of cargo and in saving expense, that it was immediately adopted by the other companies, to a greater or less extent.

Hydraulic machinery.

The St. Katherine's Dock Company certainly labours under a great disadvantage, in regard both to its water space and warehousing accommodation. The ships in this dock are crowded into the narrowest compass; and, unfortunately, the Company, hemmed in as they are by the Tower of London on one side and the London Docks upon the other, with the Thames before them and the Royal Mint behind, have no prospect of ever being able to extend their bounds. The warehouse accommodation at this dock is too confined in its area to allow of any distinct and separate classification of goods; and, indeed, it is to be objected to the warehousing system of London altogether, that goods are not properly classified. This remark applies with increased force to the sufferance wharfs and legal quays, where goods are massed together without regard to any other consideration than getting the largest quantity into the smallest space. To this cause may be attributed the frequent occurrence of fires in the river-side warehouses. No precautions can prevent these fires so long as the warehouses contain inflammable materials.

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* That supplied by the East and West India Dock Company is in Fenchurch Street, and its neighbourhood, where the Company have warehouses of great extent. The uptown warehouses of the Victoria Dock Company are in the Minories, on the line of the Blackwall Railway, which runs into them. The St. Katherine's Dock Company have an uptown warehouse in Cutler Street.

Accommodation provided by the Dock Companies.

The following tables will show the extent of the accommodation provided by the Dock Companies in the Port of London, the number and tonnage of the ships frequenting the docks, and the capital stock and dividends of the companies:—

NAME.	WATER AREA.	WAREHOUSE, VAULT, AND SHED ACCOMMODATION.
London Docks	34 acres.	31,553,654 cubic feet.
St. Katherine's Docks . .	11 „	17,823,229 „
West India Docks . . .	98 „	31,531,725 „
East India Docks	29¾ „	5,402,200 „
Victoria Docks	100 „	19,728,550 „
Total	272¾ acres.	106,039,358 cubic feet.*

Exclusive of up-town warehouses.

NUMBER of SHIPS, with their Tonnage, frequenting the principal Docks of London for Five Years.

Number and tonnage of ships docked.

NAME OF DOCK.	YEARS.									
	1856.		1857.		1858.		1859.		1860.	
	Ships	Tonnage	Ships	Tonnage	Ships	Tonnage	Ships	Tonnage	Ships	Tonnage
East and West India	1,069*	468,971	1,128	466,451	1,099	451,865	1,169	483,128	1,200	498,366
London	1,066	414,466	979	390,759	912	372,702	1,019	436,400	1,032	424,338
St. Katherine's	902	213,797	944	201,941	904	202,740	891	217,719	905	223,397
Victoria	1,541	410,463	1,722	594,773	2,420	849,360	2,522	716,131	2,682	850,337

* Exclusive of colliers and grain vessels.

CAPITAL of the principal Dock Companies of London, 1861.

Capital of the Dock Companies.

DOCKS.	CAPITAL STOCK.	LOANS AND DEBENTURES.
London	£3,816,897 5/10	£1,121,413
St. Katherine	1,939,800	619,592
East and West India	2,065,668	——
Victoria	856,502	215,851
Commercial	514,410	100,000
Surrey Canal	351,100	300,000

DIVIDENDS paid by the principal Dock Companies.

Their dividends.

	NAME OF DOCK.			
	EAST AND WEST INDIA.	LONDON.†	ST. KATHERINE'S.†	VICTORIA.
1856	6 per cent.	5 per cent. With Income tax.	4½ per cent. Without Inc. tax.	5 per cent. Without Inc. tax
1857	6 ,,	5 per cent. Without Inc. tax.	4½ per cent.	5 per cent.
1858	6 ,,	4 per cent.	4½ ,,	5 ,,
1859	6 ,,	3 ,,	4¼ ,,	5¼ ,,
1860	6 ,,	2 ,,	3¾ ,,	5¼ ,,
1861	6 ,,	2¼ ,,	3¼ ,,	5¼ ,,

† The marked reduction of dividends in the case of these companies has no doubt arisen from a competition which has been followed by a reduction of rates.

Sanitary condition of the Docks.

The sanitary condition of the different docks has been more than once reported upon by the medical officers of health attached to the Customs department of the Port of London. From their reports it would appear that the permanent labourers in the St. Katherine's Docks are by far the most exposed to sickness and mortality. In 1857-8, when the strength of the permanent staff of officers, clerks, petty officers, and labourers was 667, the number of absentees from these docks, through illness, averaged nearly 100 a month, and the deaths exceeded one a month. At the London Docks, where 1,579, or more than double the number of persons, were employed, the average number of absentees was 63 per month, and the number of deaths was less. At the East and West India Docks, the strength being 574, the number of absences was only about 30 a month, and the number of deaths in the year only 3. At the Victoria Docks the Report states that "there was little or no sickness amongst the people employed in them."

Causes of sickness in the St. Katherine's and London Docks.

The causes of sickness amongst the officers and labourers in the docks appear to be attributed to the over-crowded state of the St. Katherine's, and the impurity of the water and the immense mud deposit in both that dock and the London. The Report,* speaking of the St. Katherine's Docks, says :—

> "The average depth is twenty-two feet, but not more than four feet can be let off at a time, consistently with the safety of the shipping and the dock buildings. By the steam engine, the dock water can be raised six inches per hour. Some idea of the immense mud deposition may be formed when it is said that 8,000 tons have been dredged in these docks in the course of a single year. The average number of shipping constantly in these docks is from seventy to eighty.

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* Vide Third Report of the Commissioners of Her Majesty's Customs, p. 80.

"In July, 1857,* the water in the St. Katherine's, and also in the London Docks, smelt offensively, and when looked upon from the quay, in both docks, it appeared as black as ink; but when taken up without disturbing the stratum of mud beneath, it presented little impurity. Dr. Odling examined the waters of the London and St. Katherine's Docks in July. In both docks the water smelt offensively, but they contained respectively only six and nine grains of dissolved organic matter in a gallon.

"In June, July, August, and September, 1858, more especially during the first of those months, the effluvia from the water of these docks was again very offensive, and to a degree far exceeding that of the previous year."

Official report as to the East and West India and Victoria Docks.

Speaking of the East and West India and Victoria Docks, the Report says—

"These docks are not like the London and St. Katherine's, surrounded by a dense population. On the water side they command a fine view of the open country, and there is a free circulation of air. The river water, and consequently the dock water, is here comparatively clean, and at spring tides, by opening the gates of the Blackwall entrance, and discharging the water at the Limehouse entrance, the Dock is scoured and the water is thus frequently renewed. There is seldom much foul smell, even in the hottest weather." . . . "The East India, like the West India Docks, were in much better condition than those higher up the river during the hot weather."

"*Victoria Docks.*—These splendid docks, situated below Blackwall, comprise a water area of 100 acres each. These docks command a free exposure on all sides. . . . The water of these docks was in good condition during the summer, and there is little or no sickness among the people employed. The average number of ships always in these docks is 156."

The legal quays and sufferance wharves.

The existing legal quays and sufferance wharves labour, commercially, under many disadvantages. As the Docks, Custom House, &c., occupy the space most proximate to London Bridge, there is no opportunity for the extension of wharfage towards the west; and the wharves, therefore, can only seek additional space at points lower down the river, less convenient for the general purposes of trade. Being in the hands of private individuals, the wharves are also limited as to the business they transact, and the warrants and other documents issued on the wharfingers' authority do not secure the same commercial confidence as the warrants and documents of a dock company. Although many of the wharves and landing-places possess very fine warehouses, experience has also shown that they do not afford the same security as the dock premises, either in protection from fire or plunder. As regards the depredations to which the goods landed at the wharves are subject, it is, indeed, obvious, that they cannot be subject to the same protection as goods landed from the ship's side into the dock warehouses. Goods have to be conveyed to most of the wharves from the ship's side in barges or lighters, involving a double handling, and a consequent delay and loss, which must fall on somebody. Nevertheless, subject as they are to all sorts of disadvantages, the wharves, in consequence, possibly, of being more economically managed, are enabled to compete to a large extent for the business of the Port; and by regulating their rates in accordance with those of the dock companies, and keeping them conveniently lower, they continue to command a considerable trade in almost all sorts of imports.

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* At this time, and in the months of August and September following, the sickness in the docks was at the highest.

The Thames, and the ships which still unload in it.

Besides the accommodation offered by the water-space and warehouse-room in the docks and at the wharves, the river itself, for one of the largest items of the trade of London, continues to be used, as in days of old, as the scene of transhipment. Nearly all the sailing vessels which come to London laden with coals, instead of entering docks to unload their cargoes, lie in the stream of the river, and transfer their coals to lighters, which convey them to the yards of coal merchants, situate either on the banks of the river itself or of the canals which run into it. The delay and inconvenience arising from this system is very great, but the subject is sufficiently important to demand separate consideration.

Outports which are adjuncts to the trade of London.

The facilities afforded by the railways have operated to make some of our outports adjuncts of the Port of London. A very large proportion of the silk manufactures of the Continent, especially ribbons and other light products of the looms of Lyons, are now imported at Folkestone, and transmitted from there to London. Southampton, owing to the facilities afforded by the South-Western Railway in connexion with its docks, has also become a port of very considerable trade, in connexion with the London market. Great quantities of raw silk are brought to this port from the East by the Peninsular and Oriental Steam Company's packets; the Royal Mail Steam Company's ships bring considerable quantities of cocoa, coffee, and tobacco from the West Indies and South America; and from France the port enters a very large supply of eggs, and other light articles.

Folkestone.

Southampton,

Southampton, which was a decaying town and port, prior to the construction of its docks and railway, owes much to the enterprise and zeal of those who, in the course of the last twenty-five years, have so largely developed the advantages of its position. The docks of Southampton and the railway from that town to London, form, in fact, a direct communication between the British Channel and the Thames, and render Southampton almost an outport of the Port of London. That the importance of such a direct communication between the Thames and the Channel was felt at a remote period may be gathered from the fact that the

A port for London in the British Channel.

Venetians sent their large annual ships to Southampton in the very early days of English trade. In 1825, an attempt was made to connect London and the British Channel. A "Grand Ship Canal" was projected "from London to Portsmouth." The capital was to be 4,000,000*l.* with an additional 1,000,000*l.* to cover contingencies. The prospectus, which will be found in the British Museum, stated that "a line "had been ascertained by which the river Thames "might be connected with Portsmouth harbour "by means of a tidal canal from Deptford, without locks, and navigable for ships of the largest "class fully equipped and laden, which may be expeditiously passed through it by mechanical means." The proposal, which was described as a "stupendous national object," does not appear to have got into Parliament; but some ten years after, the Southampton Railway provided, in a better form, the means of transit for goods, which the promoters projected.

The Grand Ship Canal project.

Abortive Dock projects.

Numerous projects have at various times been placed before the public for the construction of other docks in London. So far back as 1825, "Collier Docks" were projected at Bermondsey, "to contain "160 ships, with additional space for barges, and "covered sheds for 200,000 chaldrons of coals." The capital was 750,000*l.* and the Hon. Douglas Kinnaird was the chairman, but the scheme proved abortive. A public "Collier Dock" in the Isle of Dogs was about the same time projected and strongly advocated by one of the then harbour-masters of the Port of London, Mr. Charles Rowland. A very strong direction was formed for the promotion of this dock. Mr. George Byng, the member for Middlesex, was chairman; Mr. Wm. Mellish, deputy-chairman; Mr. Astell, the East Indian director, Sir Edward Banks, Mr. Barnard, banker, Sir James Cockburn,

"Collier Docks" at the Isle of Dogs;

Sir Edward Codrington, Sir John Scott Lillie, Sir John Lubbock, Mr. J. Lewis Minet, Mr. J. P. Muspratt, Sir J. D. Paul, Mr. Pitcher, Mr. Prescott, Mr. Tooke, Sir J. Rae Reid, and Mr. A. W. Robarts, were among the directors and auditors. Supported by such influence it might have been assumed that this project could not fail of success; but the company fell to the ground. At a later period, Collier Docks, in connexion with railway projects, have been projected at points much lower down the Thames, as at Thames Haven, Tilbury, Purfleet, and other places. Docks have been also proposed on the Essex side of the Thames at Dagenham, and on the Kent shore at Northfleet. Under the auspices of Mr. Angerstein, one of the members for Greenwich, docks have also been proposed to be formed in the marshes between Greenwich and Woolwich. These various projects, however, have all proved abortive; and at the present time the dock accommodation which is afforded to shipping in the Port of London is so ample, and the facilities for extension possessed by the East and West India, and by the Victoria Dock Company are so great, that it is scarcely possible any other docks can be projected with prospect of success. Except at an enormous cost, no docks can be made higher up the river on the north side than the East and West India, and Victoria; and at any point lower down the river they must obviously labour under a disadvantage in competing with docks nearer to the London markets. Considering also the increased and increasing value of land, it is scarcely possible to imagine that docks could now be made any where on the Thames at less cost than the Victoria; and the cost of original construction always must be the main element in regulating the price at which dock managers can transact the business of a port.

Thames Haven, Dagenham, Northfleet, Greenwich, &c.

CHAPTER IV.

SHIPPING OF THE PORT.

Number and tonnage of London ships.

THE shipping of the Port of London consisted in 1860 of 2,943 vessels of 919,591 tons burden; or, in round figures, 3,000 vessels, carrying a million tons. The proportion of the tonnage to that of all England is above one-fourth; the total number of ships of all denominations belonging to English ports being 21,007, of a registered tonnage of 3,709,615.

The shipping of the Port is thus classified:—

	NO.	TONNAGE.
Sailing vessels of and under 50 Tons	679	23,174
,, ,, above ,,	1,737	657,218
Steam vessels of and under ,,	159	4,745
,, ,, above ,,	368	184,454
Total	2,943	919,591

It will thus be seen that the greater proportion of London ships are of the larger rates of tonnage; indeed, whilst the average of all the shipping of England gives only 176 tons to each vessel, the London vessels average upwards of 330 tons each.

Great proportion of large steam vessels belonging to the Port.

But the superior character of London shipping is more remarkably exemplified by the fact that London owns the larger proportion of all the larger steam vessels of England. Of late years the employment of large steam ships in first-class trades has been greatly on the increase, and the number and tonnage of these vessels has been very rapidly increasing.* The steam vessels of and above 50 tons belonging to English ports number altogether 822, of 323,500 tons register, of which London owns 368 of 184,454 tons, or more than one-half the tonnage.

Vessels employed in the trade of of London.

The number of vessels belonging to the Port does not, however, in any degree represent the trade of the Port of London. This is represented by a much larger number of ships, as will be seen by the following return:—

NUMBER AND TONNAGE OF VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED AT THE PORT OF LONDON IN 1860, DISTINGUISHING BRITISH FROM FOREIGN SHIPS.

ENTERED INWARDS.

	NO.	TONNAGE.
British Sailing Vessels	19,990	3,371,681
,, Steam Vessels	4,676	1,610,083
Foreign Sailing Vessels	4,414	1,011,319
,, Steam Vessels	462	142,888
Total	29,542	6,135,971

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* The following table will show the progressive increase:—

Increase of steam shipping.

STEAM VESSELS BELONGING TO THE UNITED KINGDOM.

	VESSELS.	TONS.
1814	1	59
1829	34	3,018
1830	295	30,009
1840	768	87,539
1849	1,142	158,729
1860	2,200	454,327

The single vessel in 1814 was, no doubt, the *Comet*, a boat of fourteen horse-power, which was placed on the river Clyde and worked for hire there about that year. There was not a single steamer engaged in the foreign trade earlier than 1822. The preference for steam ships in certain trades is now very great, and it is probable that in the course of the next ten years the proportion of steam shipping belonging to the Port of London will show even a still larger increase.

ENTERED OUTWARDS.

	NO.	TONNAGE.
British Sailing Vessels . . .	9,394	1,302,355
,, Steam Vessels . . .	3,475	1,086,133
Foreign Sailing Vessels . . .	3,852	848,589
,, Steam Vessels . . .	438	134,560
Total	17,159	3,371,637

Ships employed

The mode in which this shipping was employed will be seen from the following accounts of the entries inwards and outwards in different trades :—

in the Coasting,

IN THE COASTING TRADE.

	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
	NO.	TONS.	NO.	TONS.
British Sailing Vessels .	15,514	2,151,544	6,915	471,133
Foreign ,, ,, .	19	1,708	10	2,862
British Steam Vessels .	2,832	1,001,309	1,893	603,009
Foreign ,, ,, .	—	——	—	——
Total . .	18,365	3,169,861	8,818	1,077,004

the Colonial,

IN THE COLONIAL TRADE.

	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
	NO.	TONS.	NO.	TONS.
British Sailing Vessels .	1,889	731,677	1,183	600,427
Foreign ,, ,, .	273	132,821	135	78,690
British Steam Vessels .	66	28,368	63	26,511
Foreign ,, ,, .	—	——	—	——
Total . .	2,628	892,886	1,381	705,628

In the Foreign Trade.

and the Foreign trades.

	INWARDS.		OUTWARDS.	
	NO.	TONS.	NO.	TONS.
British Sailing Vessels.	2,587	488,460	1,296	230,795
Foreign ,, ,,	4,122	876,790	3,707	767,037
British Steam Vessels .	1,778	580,406	1,519	456,613
Foreign ,, ,,	462	142,888	438	134,560
Total . .	8,949	2,088,544	6,960	1,589,005

Total ships and tonnage entered inwards in 1860.

It will be seen from the foregoing, that the total ships and tonnage entered inwards with cargo in the Port in 1860 exceeded SIX MILLION TONS.

	SHIPS.	TONNAGE.
In the Coasting Trade . . .	18,365	3,169,861
,, Colonial ,, . . .	2,028	892,886
,, Foreign ,, . . .	8,949	2,088,544
Total	29,344	6,151,291

Proportion of British to foreign shipping.

Of this tonnage, the proportion of British shipping was as six to one—the total foreign ships and tonnage being 4,876 ships of 1,154,207 tons. Of this total, it is also observable, that nearly the whole, or 4,584 ships of 1,019,678 tons, were foreign ships employed in the foreign trade, which they have a clear right to, and which it is even our interest that they should carry on in their own vessels; for it cannot be desirable that a nation which has so large a trade as ours, should not find in its ports the ships of other nations bringing hither the merchandise of those nations with a view to trade with us for our manufactures and commodities. As it is, the enterprise of British shipowners and merchants is sufficiently shown by the fact, that even in the foreign trade, the

British tonnage entered in the Port of London exceeds that of all other nations put together, amounting to 1,365,250 tons, whilst the total foreign tonnage is only 1,154,207. It may, therefore, be concluded, that any measures, either of taxation or otherwise, which excluded foreign shipping, or prevented them from resorting to our ports on favourable terms, would operate most injuriously upon British shipping; for it is to be observed, that the foreign trade carried on in British vessels is larger than the entire colonial trade carried on in the vessels of all nations; so that were any restrictive measures on foreign shipping to be applied, for example, to colonial trade, the retaliatory measures of other nations would operate much more injuriously on British shipping engaged in their commerce, than British measures would operate on foreign ships engaged in British commerce.

The coasting trade.

Perhaps, however, the most striking fact in the foregoing table, is the enormous proportion of shipping engaged in our coasting trade. A few years ago, when this trade was thrown open, a great outcry was raised that our vessels would be driven out of the trade by the Americans, the Swedes, and the Norwegians, and that "the nursery for British seamen," as it is called, would be annihilated. The facts show that this idea was only imaginary. In spite of the competition of railroads, the coasting trade of the country shows a large and steady increase, and has reached an enormous tonnage. This tonnage may be said to be exclusively British; only 19 foreign vessels of 1,708 tons being employed in it out of 18,365 vessels of upwards of 3,000,000 tons entering the Port of London. The fact is, that every nation must, of necessity, be able to conduct its own coasting trade to the greatest advantage. The language, the habits of the people, the knowledge of the best and cheapest markets, the connexions

The large tonnage engaged in it exclusively British.

subsisting between the merchant and the shipowner, the acquaintance with the coast and its navigation, the facilities attending the loading and unloading of the vessels—all these are elements in a coasting trade in which a native must have the advantage of a foreigner. And the condition of our coasting trade, six years after it has been absolutely thrown open to foreign competition, shows that there is not the slightest ground for apprehension as to the effects of that competition on the shipping of this country.

The steam shipping, almost exclusively British.

Another remarkable fact in favour of British shipping developed in the foregoing tables, is our almost exclusive monopoly of the steam shipping trade. No foreign nation has a single steam vessel employed in the coasting or colonial trades of London; and their proportion engaged in the foreign trade is little more than one-fifth. Of the whole steam shipping entering the Port of London with cargoes amounting to a

	STEAM SHIPS.	TONNAGE.
Total of	5,138	1,752,971
The British Vessels number	4,676	1,610,083
The Foreign Vessels only	462	142,888

or not one-tenth of the whole.

The increase of steam shipping the real cause of the recent depression in the shipping trade.

There can be no doubt that the great increase in the number and tonnage of our steam shipping between 1850 and 1860, (during which period it increased from 160,000 to 450,000 tons,) was the main cause of the depression complained of in our shipping trade. At the commencement of the Russian war, a great demand arose for large steam vessels for the transport of troops and stores to the Crimea; and vessels of this class were chartered by the Government at such high rates, as to give an immediate and undue impetus to the building of large-sized steam ships. When the Russian war terminated, the value of these vessels sunk as disproportionately as it had previously risen; and the Australian trade becoming weak about the same period, a serious depression occurred in every branch of the merchant-shipping business. A committee of the House of Commons was appointed to consider and report upon the circumstances attending the depression. This committee made a valuable report in 1860, showing the real cause of the depression in the trade; and recommending the removal of many burdens and restrictions imposed on our mercantile marine. Between 1850 and 1860, the number of steam vessels in the United Kingdom increased from 1,100 to 2,200, and their tonnage increased from 158,000 to no less than 454,000 tons. The effect of this large increase of steam tonnage seems scarcely to be sufficiently appreciated even at the present time. If special employment cannot be afforded it, it must not alone displace nearly 300,000 tons of other tonnage; but, inasmuch as one steamer in the coasting and short trades can accomplish as much work as five sailing vessels, it must displace five times 300,000 tons. The depression in the shipping trade, therefore, must, to a great extent, be considered to have arisen from the effect of the transition from sailing to steam shipping, stimulated (no doubt, excessively) by the outbreak of the war. The depression, in fact, was one of the inevitable results of the progress of science. However productive of transient injury to individuals, the results of such improvements are beneficial to the general interests of mankind, and are beyond the reach of legislation.

Extent of this increase.

Its ultimate effect on our trade.

The development of navigation by steam shipping must be of special advantage to Great Britain. Possessing within herself all the resources necessary for iron-ship building and steam propulsion, she must be able successfully to compete with every other nation in the art and business of steam navigation. When every point of comparison is duly considered, there can be no doubt that steam ships can be built in this country at less expense than in any other; and this, indeed, is proved by the fact that a very large proportion of the steam shipping now navigating the waters of the globe under the flags of other nations, owe their construction to England, whilst a still larger number are indebted to this country for their machinery and boilers.

First cost of steam ships,

The progress made by Great Britain in the construction of steam vessels for herself, has been more than equal to everything hitherto accomplished by, or for, all the other countries of the world in the aggregate. Nor is this wonderful: inasmuch as England possesses the motive power in the greater abundance, she must be able to work her steam vessels at less cost than any nation which has to purchase or import it from England; or which raises coal under less advantages either as to quality or cost. And if this reasoning be correct, it becomes obvious that the more steam vessels are employed in the commerce of the world, the larger must be the proportionate share of England in that commerce.

and cost of working them,

all in favour of British commerce.

At the same time it must not be forgotten that steam navigation has its limits. The great bulk of fuel requiring to be carried on very long voyages, operates practically as a prohibition to steam navigation for such distances, except in cases where there may be intermediate coaling stations, or where the freights to be conveyed are of a light character. In cases where bulky goods are to be conveyed for long distances in steam vessels, and where no intermediate opportunity for coaling is practicable, the application of steam power only as an AUXILIARY to the sailing

Certain practical limits to steamnavigation.

On very long voyages steam most applicable as an auxiliary power.

power, appears to be most desirable. In such cases, the steam power is used only in calms and against light adverse winds; the ship using her sails alone when the wind is sufficiently fair to enable her to dispense with the application of steam. By this means not only is that space afforded for the freightage of the ship, which is otherwise occupied by the coals to be consumed on the voyage, but a large saving is also effected in the cost of the voyage by the diminished quantity of coals consumed. Of recent years this principle of applying steam as an auxiliary to sailing power has become recognized in the Port of London, and very large steam vessels on long voyages have been fitted expressly to carry out the object. The results have been highly satisfactory in comparison with those obtained by vessels worked under steam power alone. The difference has amounted to the whole difference of either profit or loss upon the voyage.

Railways successful competitors with steam ships for passenger traffic.

Another case in which the success of steam vessels finds its limit, is the case of passenger vessels, exposed to competition with railways. In the early days of steam vessels they were thought to be specially and peculiarly applicable to the navigation of inland waters, and to short passages across the seas. They came consequently to be employed very extensively, and for a time with remarkable success, upon the rivers of England, and in such short voyages as from London to Antwerp, Rotterdam, and Hamburg. Mr. Porter, in his "Progress of the Nation," tells us that—

> "The facility of moving from place to place, joined to the great economy both in time and money that has accompanied the adoption of this mode of propelling vessels, has excited the locomotive propensities of the English people in a most remarkable degree. The countless thousands who now annually pass

in these packets up and down the river Thames, seem almost wholly to have been led to travel by the cheap and commodious means that have been thus presented to them, since the amount of journeying by land has by no means lessened. The number of passengers conveyed between London and Gravesend by steam-packets in 1835 was ascertained by the collector of the pier-dues at the latter town to have been 670,452. It was stated in evidence before a Committee of the House of Commons in 1836, that at least 1,057,000 passengers, including those to and from Gravesend, pass Blackwall in steamers every year. The number of passengers conveyed by the Hull and Selby steam-packets, in the twelve months which preceded the opening of the Leeds and Selby Railway, was 33,882, whereas, in the twelve months that followed that event, the number conveyed was 62,105."

This was published only ten years ago (1851). What has occurred in that short interval? Two railways have been constructed on the banks of the Thames, communicating with Gravesend, one on the north shore (the London, Tilbury, and Southend), and the other on the south (the North Kent line). The number of persons resorting to Gravesend has been trebled; but the steamers have been obliged utterly to succumb to the railways, and of the two or three fleets of admirable vessels which in 1851 performed the water passage between London Bridge and Gravesend with the greatest speed and regularity, carrying nearly a million of passengers per annum, *scarcely one remains!* Above bridge, the steamboat communication between London and Richmond has in the same way been utterly abandoned; the railways carrying all the traffic. So in the case of the communication between Hull and Selby. In the interval since Mr. Porter's book was published, the Leeds and Selby Railway has been extended to Hull, and the thousands of passengers who used to be carried by boat upon the Humber from Selby to

The Thames steam boats obliged to succumb to railways.

Hull and Hull to Selby, are now all carried by the railway. It may be doubted whether, upon any river in England, there now remains a steamboat service of any moment where the river's bank is traversed by a railway.

Sea communication by steam vessels.

The result is equally remarkable in the case of sea-communication. Mr. Porter in 1851 wrote:—

> "Scarcely any two ports of consequence in the United Kingdom can be pointed out between which steam communication is not maintained, as well for the conveyance of passengers, as for the transmission of goods. Besides this, the communication is regularly maintained with all the principal neighbouring ports on the Continent of Europe. From London vessels proceed to the French coast almost every day; to Holland three times a week; to Belgium as frequently; to Hamburg twice a week; and to Lisbon and Cadiz every week."

Along our coast,

The steamers along our coast at that time carried passengers to Portsmouth, Southampton, Dartmouth, Plymouth, Falmouth, Ipswich, Yarmouth, Hull, Newcastle, Edinburgh, Dundee, Aberdeen, and even round to Bristol, Cardiff, Liverpool, and Glasgow. But the much more direct, rapid, and (considering time as an element) more economical transit secured by railway, has put a stop to all this trade, and except to Scotland and the east coast, in the summer season, scarcely a passenger vessel now leaves the Thames for any port in Great Britain. In the same way, railways have effected a complete alteration in the passenger trade to the Continent. It may be said that all the passenger trade with France now goes by railway through either Folkestone, Dover, Newhaven, or Southampton. Scarcely anything remains of the large passenger traffic formerly carried on by steamers from London to the ports of Ostend, Antwerp, and Rotterdam. Although the resort of English subjects to Belgium, Germany, and Holland

and to the Continent,

regulated by railway facilities.

has been unequalled during the last ten years, travellers are now almost altogether conveyed by the boats from Dover to Calais, or Dover to Ostend, from whence they find their way to the places in Belgium or Germany which they wish to visit. Even the Hamburg steamboat traffic, which at one time was the greatest source of profit to the General Steam Navigation Company, is now only maintained by a reduction of from 50 to 75 per cent. upon the passage money.

Causes of the preference for railway travelling.

The fact is, that in all the elements desirable for journeys of limited extent, the railway presents superior advantages. In speed, certainty, facility, enjoyment, time, and, consequently, cost, the steamer is necessarily an inferior means of transit to the railroad; and, as may be illustrated by innumerable examples, no steamer can compete with it for passenger traffic. That this is becoming to be thoroughly understood is shown by the various proposals which have been made to form a direct communication between the coasts of France and England by tunnels under the Channel. Visionary as such projects seem to be in the face of the difficulties nature opposes to such a work, they illustrate, in a very forcible manner, the preference which is given to the railroad, even in a case where the passage of the steamer has been brought within the limits of little more than one hour, and where the facilities for the voyage, and for shipping and unshipping, are almost the best that human ingenuity can devise.

Superiority of the steam vessel for the conveyance of goods.

What has been observed upon this subject, however, does not apply in any way to the conveyance of goods. In respect to articles of bulk, the steamer will probably always be able to command the trade. She does not stand at the same cost of construction, has less to pay for in wear and tear, and is worked relatively at a cheaper rate. These elements will enable a steam vessel to carry at a less cost per ton for an equal distance than the railway; and when we consider that commerce is always carried on in great cities at the water's side, and that the steamers have access to the quays, the wharves, the warehouses, and the appliances which railways, in many cases, cannot reach, an additional advantage appears to be secured to steam vessels, of which it will never be easy to divest them. Besides, the trade of a railroad is from a certain point to a certain point; that of a steam vessel may be diverted from one port to another, according to the exigencies of commerce and the requirements of the merchant.

Ship-building in the Thames.

The subject of ship-building scarcely falls within the compass of this work. There are a considerable number of building yards upon the Thames, at which first-class vessels are built; and the trade of ship-building has been increasing of late years in consequence of iron vessels having come more and more into use, and the skilled labour always to be obtained in London making the Thames very available for the construction of these vessels. At the present time there are more iron than wooden vessels constructed on the river, and the number of persons taking up iron ship-building as a trade is on the increase.

Iron vessels.

Comparative values of iron and wood in ship-building.

The question of the comparative values of iron and wood in ship-building has long been very much debated; although, of late years, the opinion of practical men appears gradually to have tended in favour of iron. It is claimed in favour of iron with considerable force, that in the principal elements desired by the ship-builder and the merchant, the ship constructed of iron has the advantage. She has, it is said, greater strength combined with lightness, greater capacity for stowage, greater safety under the ordinary circumstances of accident, much

Advantages

greater speed, more durability, and (which is of great consequence to the shipowner) less occasion for repair, and it is also said that she draws less water, and that, in England, she can be constructed at less cost.

and disadvantages of iron,

Against this, it is admitted that there are certain freights for which iron vessels are unsuited; as, for instance, sugar, the drainage from which produces very rapid corrosion of the iron. It is also admitted that derangement of the compass (at least until "compensating compasses" were invented), was a serious drawback; and that, in the warmer climates especially, iron vessels foul with greater rapidity than timber ships properly sheathed with copper. If all the advantages urged on behalf of iron vessels can be supported, they would seem greatly to overbalance these disadvantages, and the more so, as there is nothing in them which the progress of science may not surmount by expedients of a simple character.

as regards strength, stowage, safety, speed, and durability.

The superior strength of an iron vessel is admitted by most persons. The stowage of a ship depends upon her build, and the principal advantage of an iron ship over a timber vessel in stowage is derived from her shell being thinner, and there being less interruption from beams. Safety is dependent on the circumstances attending the accident, and the chances of risk are, probably, about as great on the one side as the other.* As respects speed, the iron vessel, no doubt, ordinarily has the advantage, from the finer form which the builder is able to adopt when he has to deal with a material of construction more capable of easy moulding than heavy logs of timber. As regards durability, the question lies between the corrosion of the iron and that dry rot which is the scourge of timber vessels; and it would seem that one may be prevented, whilst the progress of decay from the other can only be retarded. The wear and tear of a timber ship doubtless exceeds that of an iron vessel, but the reparations, when they have to be made, are, perhaps, more costly in the case of an iron than of a timber ship, especially if such reparations have to be effected in a foreign country.

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* It has been contended by some persons that iron vessels are the safer, because they can be fitted with bulkheads which divide them into water-tight compartments. But Captain Sullivan, R.N., who, as an officer of the Board of Trade, gave evidence before the Committee on Merchant Shipping, suggested whether these bulkheads were not productive of weakness rather than strength. "It "becomes a question," he says, "whether vessels are oftener broken up by the "rivet-holes necessary for these bulkheads, than they are saved from loss by the "partitions preventing their sinking." "I cannot recollect one case myself in "which a ship has been saved by a water-tight compartment, except when it was "a bow compartment." He says that it is a question whether a ship is not more liable to part in consequence of the weak points made by these bulkheads, which are "something like the holes in a return-ticket on a railway."

Prime cost.

As the advantages, in these matters, to a great extent counterbalance each other, the prime cost becomes, and will, probably, for a long time remain, the chief governing element in the construction of ships. The prime cost will be governed by the price of materials and the cost of labour. *Primâ facie*, it would seem that, as wood is cheaper than iron, and as carpenter's labour is, ordinarily, less expensive than smith's, the cost of a timber vessel must be less than that of an iron ship. But it has to be considered, that a timber vessel is not constructed of that material alone. Her timbers have to be bolted and rivetted with iron, and she has, at a heavy cost, to be sheathed with zinc or copper. This combination of materials and of the labour required in their application, bring up the cost of a wooden vessel to an amount which, under ordinary circumstances, is not inferior to that of an iron ship; and which, if durability is considered, probably in the end makes the iron vessel the cheaper of the two.*

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* Mr. C. Wigram, who gave admirable evidence before the Select Committee on Merchant Shipping, on the subject of Iron ship-building, said, "I think that "taking equally, faithfully built vessels, and of equal strength, there is very little "difference in cost; I am speaking of vessels built in London."—Q. 301.

Conclusion that iron or wooden ships will be preferred according to the service for which they are required.

These considerations seem to lead to the conclusion that the construction of iron and timber vessels will prevail according, very much, to the circumstances under which the vessel is intended to be used. A steam vessel required for a first-class service will probably, henceforward, be ordinarily constructed of the material which affords greater strength, durability, and speed; a ship that is merely required to carry heavy general cargo, will probably continue to be constructed of the material which is least immediately costly. As the trade of London with foreign ports is now carried on chiefly by vessels of the best class, it is, therefore, probable, that for purposes of foreign trade, iron ships will rapidly increase in use; whilst the bulk of those trades in which speed is less necessary will, probably, for a long time, be carried on in vessels constructed of the cheapest material. At present, the preference of London merchants for first-class ships, leads to an increasing use of iron for the shipping constructed in and for the Port; and, probably, during the next twenty years, it will be found that iron vessels increase in use in London in far greater proportion than they have done hitherto—great as has been the recent increase in the number of our iron vessels.

The tables on the pages following will show the quantities of the principal articles imported into the Port of London in 1860, and will enable the reader to compare the imports and exports of the Port with those of the United Kingdom generally:—

IMPORTS.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED, 1860.		INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.	INTO PORT OF LONDON.
Animals, Living:			
Oxen, Bulls, and Cows	Number	77,010	54,079
Sheep and Lambs	,,	320,219	287,203
Bones (except Whalefins)	Tons	62,321	6,983
Cocoa	Lbs.	9,009,860	6,672,631
Coffee	,,	82,767,746	72,784,354
Corn:			
Wheat	Qrs.	5,880,958	1,180,903
Barley	,,	2,112,861	486,460
Oats	,,	2,290,951	1,645,901
Peas	,,	314,201	56,289
Beans	,,	439,834	86,503
Indian Corn or Maize	,,	1,851,762	43,188
Wheat Meal and Flour	Cwts.	5,086,220	1,079,394
Cotton, Raw	,,	12,419,096	316,861
Cotton Manufactures, not made up	Value £	604,547	185,253
Dyes and Dyeing Stuffs:			
Cochineal	Cwts.	22,486	6,504
Indigo	,,	77,321	67,981
Madder and Madder Root	,,	283,295	3,068
Flax:			
Dressed or Undressed	,,	1,298,276	14,288
Tow or Codilla of Flax	,,	166,534	1,431
Fruits:			
Currants	,,	755,415	474,949
Lemons and Oranges	Bushels	1,154,410	511,111
Raisins	Cwts.	242,770	149,788
Guano	Tons	141,435	22,945
Hemp	Cwts.	787,283	205,098
Jute and other Vegetable Substances	,,	821,892	477,547
Hides, Untanned:			
,, Dry	,,	236,923	176,050
,, Wet	,,	611,405	232,931
Tanned or Dressed	Lbs.	4,707,272	1,960,411
Mahogany	Tons	44,710	22,590
Metals:			
Copper Ore and Regulus	,,	97,317	5,802
Copper, Unwrought and part Wrought	,,	11,753	3,778
Iron in Bars, Unwrought	,,	54,061	8,215
Spelter, Unwrought and Rolled	,,	23,481	12,518
Tin, Unwrought	Cwts.	58,220	50,110
Oil:			
Train, Blubber, and Spermaceti	Tuns	17,029	6,314
Palm	Cwts.	804,326	153,094
Cocoa Nut	,,	194,309	187,574
Olive	Tuns	20,859	5,068
Seed Oil, of all Kinds	,,	12,995	9,022
Oilseed Cake	Tons	108,826	38,043

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES IMPORTED, 1860.		INTO THE UNITED KINGDOM.	INTO PORT OF LONDON.
Provisions :			
Bacon and Hams	Cwts.	326,106	149,236
Beef, Salted	„	261,259	113,790
Pork „	„	173,009	128,045
Butter	„	840,112	427,942
Cheese	„	583,283	202,506
Eggs	Cubic Feet	838,477	245,135
Lard	Cwts.	198,030	28,452
Rags, and other Materials, for making Paper	Tons	16,123	5,513
Rice, not in the Husk	Cwts.	1,534,640	789,392
Saltpetre and Cubic Nitre	„	1,074,765	342,864
Seeds :			
Clover	„	264,902	119,826
Flaxseed and Linseed	Qrs.	1,330,623	391,163
Rape Seed	„	269,403	148,037
Silk, Raw	Lbs.	9,178,647	2,405,580
„ Thrown	„	224,335	139,871
Silk Manufactures of Europe :			
Broad Stuffs	„	539,947	254,744
Ribbons	„	530,796	381,908
Silk Manufactures of India :			
Bandannas, Corahs, &c.	Pieces	233,910	217,235
Spices :			
Pepper	Lbs.	12,810,040	10,552,319
Pimento	Cwts.	21,127	20,235
Spirits :			
Rum	Gallons	7,319,673	5,171,824
Brandy	„	2,342,543	1,547,624
Geneva	„	635,410	206,160
Sugar, Unrefined	Cwts.	8,817,276	4,846,132
„ Refined, and Sugar Candy	„	345,010	98,281
„ Molasses	„	606,503	95,372
Tallow	„	1,430,108	899,101
Tea	Lbs.	88,946,532	83,711,086
Tobacco :			
Stemmed	„	23,709,874	9,023,843
Unstemmed	„	25,226,597	14,459,188
Cigars and Snuff	„	2,727,255	1,469,224
Wine :			
Imported from—			
British Possessions	Gallons	679,941	549,347
Foreign Countries	„	11,795,060	8,629,382
Total Wine	„	12,475,001	9,178,729
Wood and Timber :			
Not Sawn or Split	Loads	1,275,109	212,381
Battens, Boards, &c. Sawn or Split	„	1,452,806	411,654
Staves	„	76,378	27,090
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	Lbs.	145,501,651	79,700,315
„ Alpaca and Llama	„	2,894,926	31,662
Woollen Manufactures, not made up	Value £	918,927	172,105

EXPORTS.

PRINCIPAL ARTICLES EXPORTED, 1860.	TOTAL FROM THE UNITED KINGDOM.	FROM PORT OF LONDON.
Apparel and Slops	£2,156,478	£1,385,138
Beer and Ale	1,868,144	1,308,248
Butter	637,925	64,573
Candles, Stearine	238,622	199,235
Cheese	120,068	49,536
Coals, Cinders, and Culm	3,316,281	57,061
Cotton Manufactures:		
Calicoes, Cambrics, and Muslins, Fustians, and Mixed Stuffs	40,346,342	6,101,460
All other Kinds	1,795,163	252,327
Cotton Yarn	9,870,875	966,708
Earthenware and Porcelain	1,450,644	182,799
Fish, Herrings	474,805	7,046
Glass of all Kinds	653,198	328,990
Haberdashery and Millinery	4,004,431	996,981
Hardwares and Cutlery	3,770,609	807,149
Leather, Tanned, Unwrought	403,286	248,280
,, Wrought	1,406,984	868,304
,, Saddlery and Harness	318,094	195,123
Linen Manufactures:		
Cloths of all Kinds, and Cambrics	4,434,858	435,043
All other Kinds	369,945	10,569
Linen Yarn	1,801,272	283,864
Machinery:		
Steam Engines	1,238,333	476,212
Other Sorts	2,599,488	571,825
Metals:		
Iron—Pig, Bar, Wire, and Cast	4,442,661	687,109
Railroad, of all Sorts	3,408,759	934,926
Wrought, of all Kinds	3,317,349	966,419
Steel, Unwrought	986,228	48,020
Copper, Unwrought	749,879	180,006
Part Wrought, and Wrought	2,037,837	1,290,882
Lead—Ore, Pig, Rolled, Sheet, and Shot	545,727	274,452
Tin, Unwrought	361,592	237,420
Plates	1,500,812	187,718
Oil, Seed	1,131,357	328,155
Painters' Colours	475,143	240,891
Salt	358,162	13,141
Silk Manufactures	1,587,303	265,401
Thrown, Twist, and Yarn	826,107	431,335
Soap	249,538	85,323
Soda	965,348	129,885
Spirits	286,818	98,074
Stationery	759,391	435,323
Sugar, Refined	235,798	203,644
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	877,082	416,692
Woollen and Worsted Manufactures:		
Woollens	7,098,009	1,056,243
Worsted and Mixed Stuffs	4,401,936	455,629
All other Kinds	657,053	122,130
Woollen and Worsted Yarn, including Yarn mixed with other Materials	3,843,450	30,679
All other Articles	11,512,043	5,921,717
Total Declared Real Value . . . £	135,891,227	30,837,688

CHAPTER V.

FOREIGN TRADE OF THE PORT.

Our trade with CHINA.

THE trade greatest in importance, and which is regarded most hopefully, in the Port of London is undoubtedly, at the present time, the trade with the East Indies and China. Of the trade with the East Indies we shall speak under another head, and at present confine ourselves to the China trade.

almost wholly conducted in London.

The trade of China with the United Kingdom is almost exclusively conducted in London. Of the 85,000,000 lbs. of tea sent from China to Great Britain in 1860, no less than 80,000,000 lbs. came direct to London, and the silk received was even in still larger proportion. Tea and silk are almost the sole exports of China to these realms. The value of the tea and silk imported in 1860 was—

Imports from China.

Tea	£6,601,894
Silk	2,387,867

The other imports were—

Oils, of all sorts	valued in 1860 at	£53,500
Sugar	,,	47,388
Rhubarb	,,	22,216
Cassia Lignea	,,	20,399
Mats and Matting	,,	18,227
Ginger, Preserved	,,	11,340
Wax	,,	9,389
China or Porcelain Ware	,,	8,476
Camphor	,,	5,454
Japanned and Lacquered Ware .	,,	4,574
Wool	,,	2,265

The total value of our imports from China in 1860 was 9,323,764*l*. This was more than two millions less than in 1857, when we made war upon that country.

Exports to China.

Our principal exports to China in return for tea and silk are cotton and woollen manufactures, of which we sent them, in 1860, to the value of nearly 4,500,000*l*. The chief articles of export were as follows:—

Cotton Goods	valued in 1860 at	£3,160,165
Woollen Goods	,,	870,671
Cotton Yarn	,,	410,416
Iron and Steel	,,	145,313
Lead and Shot	,,	114,035
Beer and Ale	,,	99,493
Coals, &c.	,,	68,655
Copper	,,	58,984
Apparel, Slops, and Haberdashery	,,	32,814
Linens	,,	30,855
Glass Manufactures	,,	29,864
Hardware and Cutlery	,,	25,735
Stationery	,,	11,066
Earthenware	,,	6,903
Tin Plates	,,	4,167

Of articles not our own produce, we also sent them—

Wine	valued in 1860 at	£45,030
Quicksilver	,,	26,013
Brandy	,,	12,986
Spelter	,,	8,806
Cochineal	,,	4,396
Steel	,,	2,854
Glass	,,	2,764

The trade with China.

The total exportations to Chinese ports in 1860 amounted in value to about five millions and a half. A very large proportion of this total appears in the form of articles exported for the supply of our own troops, and of the British settlers in China, who now number more than 10,000.

Earthenware.

It is curious to observe that, although we derived from China the art of making porcelain, we now export to that country nearly as much earthenware as we receive from it, whilst we send them a considerable quantity of glass manufactures in addition. The quantity of beer sent to British residents and others, in China, is also noticeable. The export of beer to China, which, in 1856, only amounted to 3,118 barrels, rose in 1860 to 27,749 barrels, of the value of nearly 100,000*l*., all of which must be consumed by our own people, as the Chinese, it is said, refuse to drink beer, which is indeed a liquor of a very different character from the ordinary drinks of the Chinese, in the form of tea, and a sort of wine, drunk hot.

Beer.

The increase of our trade with China,

That our trade with China will largely increase, may be concluded from the fact that since the treaty concluded in 1858 it has already more than doubled itself, as the following will show:—

AGGREGATE VALUE OF BRITISH EXPORTS TO CHINA.

1831	£547,701
1841	862,570
1851	2,161,268
1856	2,216,123
1857	2,449,982
1858	2,876,447
1859	4,457,573
1860	5,318,036

It must be confessed, however, that this trade, considerable as it is in some articles, is extremely limited, considering that China is a nation consisting of nearly 400,000,000 people, from whom we obtain one of our principal articles of daily consumption.

restricted by our tea duty.

That which at the present time limits the extension of the China trade is the excessively heavy duty levied in England upon the principal article of Chinese export. When England forced upon the Chinese in 1858 a treaty in the highest degree advantageous to her own trade, it surely was a matter of policy, as well as of justice, to have made arrangements for the reduction of the tea duties. No nations can expect to be brought to trade together except in those articles which constitute their mutual means of paying for what they purchase; and of course our trade with China must be restricted so long as we restrict the demand of our population for the article with which China supplies us. Now the duty upon tea, which amounts, even at the present reduced rate, to fully 200 per cent. upon the original cost price of the article in China, practically prevents the extension of that large trade with China which we sought to secure by the treaty which opened the whole country to our commerce. Upon this subject, however, the best practical information will be found in the valuable report of a Select Committee of the House of Commons on our commercial relations with China, presented so far back as 1847, but which remains applicable even to the present hour.

Report of the Select Committee of the House of Commons on our Trade with China.

"REPORT.

"THE select committee appointed to take into consideration the present state of our commercial relations with China, have considered the matters to them referred, and have agreed to the following report:—

"In reporting on the condition of our commercial relations with China, your committee regret to state, on undoubted evidence, that the trade with that country has been for some time in a very unsatisfactory position, and that the result of our extended intercourse has by no means realized the just expectations which had been naturally founded on a freer access to so magnificent a market.

"Whether we look to the tables of exports, which mark a declension of exports in nearly every branch of manufacture, or listen to the statements of experienced merchants or manufacturers, we are brought to the same conclusion.

"We find the exports of cotton manufactures decline between the years 1845–46, from 1,735,141*l.* to 1,246,518*l.* in value; those of woollens, in the same period, from 539,223*l.* to 439,668*l.*

CHINA TRADE.

Report continued.

"We find that on a great proportion of the trade for the same years, the loss, taken both ways, *i.e.* that on the manufactures sent out and on the tea brought home in payment, may be fairly stated at from 35 to 40 per cent.; so great, indeed, that some manufacturers have abandoned the trade altogether, and that much of the tea lately sent home has been sent on Chinese account, the English merchants declining to run the risk of the venture.

"We find that the difficulties of the trade do not arise from any want of demand in China for articles of British manufacture, or from the increasing competition of other nations. There is no evidence that foreign competition is to be seriously apprehended in the articles of general demand. The sole difficulty is in providing a return.

"Stripping the question of minor details, which may fairly be left out, as not affecting the general results, and setting aside the junk or native trade, which, though considerable, does not assist in the general adjustment of foreign accounts, the trade of China may be thus shortly described. The bulk of its transactions are with England, British India, and the United States.

"The recognised imports into China, of which we have any account, were, in 1845, as follows:—

From all countries		$20,390,784 = £9,401,336
In English ships . . .	$16,073,682	
In American ships	2,909,669	
		18,983,351
Leaving for all other countries a value of		$1,413,433 only.

"To this may be added 23,000,000 dollars, the estimated value of 38,000 chests of opium, all brought on British or American account, and from British India.

"The export from China to all countries for the same year was 36,931,000 dollars = 8,001,926*l.*, of which

For England and British India	$26,697,321
For the United States	8,261,702
	$34,959,023

"Thus leaving for all other countries no more than $1,972,875 in value.

CHINA TRADE.

"The returns for the year 1846 are not yet completed; but, as far as they go, they indicate the same result.

Report continued.

"From England, China buys largely of manufactured goods. From the United States the same articles to the extent of 170,000*l.* From British India, opium and cotton-wool to a very large amount. In the year 1845 these imports, as will have been seen above, were valued at 43,390,784 dollars, equal to 9,401,336*l.*

"The whole of this vast import has to be paid for, with slight exceptions, by tea, silk, and silver, though sugar, and Chinese grass, as a substitute for hemp, may possibly be hereafter of some importance.

"The payment for opium, from the inordinate desire for it which prevails, and from the unrecognised nature of the transaction, which requires a prompt settlement of accounts, absorbs the silver, to the great inconvenience of the general traffic of the Chinese, and tea and silk must, in fact, pay the rest.

"Of these, England and the United States are nearly the sole consumers; and thus it happens, that the advantages which were so naturally expected from commercial access to a civilised empire of above 300,000,000 people, are practically limited by the extent to which these countries are willing or able to consume these two products of the soil of China.

"The balance of trade will, no doubt, adjust itself sooner or later, in accordance with the severe lessons of loss and disappointment which the last three years have taught; but unless we can look forward to an increased consumption of those products in which alone China has the means of paying, this adjustment can only be made at the cost of largely diminished exports, and of restricted employment to every branch of industry connected with them.

"The export of silk from China is steadily on the increase; and as it labours under no heavy taxation on its entrance either into the United States or Great Britain, and as the access now opened to the port of Shanghai has brought us into closer contact with the districts most productive of it, there is every reason to hope that it will grow with the growing wealth and luxury of nations, and progressively become an element of greater importance amongst the means of payment.

"This, however, from the nature of the article, is a slow operation, and we must look to tea mainly, and to an increased

China Trade.
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Report continued.

consumption of tea, for the means of maintaining, still more of extending, a profitable trade with those vast regions. For such an extended consumption, unless we are content to wait for the slow progress of an increase dependent solely on the increasing numbers of our population, we can only look to some considerable reduction of the price; and for such reduction, now that competition since the abolition of the monopoly of the East India Company has had its full effect, and that new sources of supply have for some time been opened, we can only look to a reduction of the duty. On a first cost, ranging on the qualities in most general demand from 8*d.* to 10*d.* in the ports of China, if any reduction can be effected, it might be of advantage to the merchant, but would have no important effect upon the selling prices in England. It is only through the duty, a duty on the average qualities of about 200 per cent., and on the worst qualities of about 350 per cent., that any such reduction to the consumer can be effected as to stimulate consumption in any sensible degree; and such a reduction thus becomes essential to a healthy and an extended trade. That it is also desirable in itself, as promoting the increased consumption of a beverage wholesome and agreeable to every class of our population, and one which is increasingly desired as a substitute for intoxicating liquors; and that it would be no more than is due to the Chinese, who tax our products so lightly,* while we burden theirs so heavily, and with such inconvenience to their trade, your committee conceive to be equally clear. In fact, the sole difficulty exists in the effect which any material reduction—and none other would be of much value—may be expected to have upon the resources of the Exchequer.

"The revenue derived from tea in the last year amounted to 5,110,897*l.*; and although this amount of revenue cannot be permanently relied on, being founded on a consumption which has been carried to that extent by prices not remunerating to the importers, and which are therefore not likely to be continued, yet it is no doubt so important an element in the income of the country, that under present circumstances it cannot be lightly dealt with.

"Upon this point the House itself only can determine. At the same time, although your committee will not pretend to

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* "The highest duty imposed by the Chinese is 10 per cent. and the average is from 5 to 7 per cent."

CHINA TRADE.

Report continued.

affirm that no loss to the revenue would be the consequence, or to calculate nicely the probable results of any particular reduction, they cannot forbear from stating the reasons which induce them to think that though the loss might possibly for a time be considerable, it would not be long continued.

"In the first place, tea is an article the taste for which is widely spread and growing among all classes, although the consumption has evidently been checked, in comparison with the similar articles of coffee and cocoa, by the want of that favour in the shape of reduction in duty, and consequently in price to the consumer, of which they have been the object. Indeed, while they have been reduced respectively, since 1821, from 1*s*. to 4*d*. per lb., and from 1*s*. to 2*d*. per lb., the duty on tea has been enhanced; but although the effect of this different treatment of articles so similar in their nature may be seen in the different rates of increase which took place since 1821, the consumption of coffee having increased by 500 per cent., and that of cocoa by above 1,000 per cent., while the increase in that of tea in the same period has been only 130 per cent., yet even that proportion amounting to a positive increase of 24,000,000 lbs., due only to lower prices, arising from a more open trade, fully bears out the general proposition.

"That the consumption of tea has not yet received its full development, is further clear, if we consider the larger proportion of tea consumed in other populations of similar tastes with those of the British Islands. In these the consumption is no more than 1 lb. 10 oz. per head, whereas, it appears that in the Isle of Man it is 2 lb. 10 oz., in Jersey and Guernsey 4 lb. 4 oz., and in Newfoundland and Australia a very considerably larger proportion.

"It will be said, however, that any reduction in duty would only have the effect, by throwing a large demand on the markets in China, of increasing the price to the English merchant; and that consequently the benefit of such reduction would rather go to the Chinese grower or merchant, than to the English consumer. This would undoubtedly be the case to a considerable extent, if the market of supply were limited or difficult to be extended; but your committee are bound to state that they have no apprehension that this will be found to be the case with regard to tea. Although it is a point on which, from the limited acquaintance which we possess with the interior of China, it is

CHINA TRADE. — Report continued.

impossible to produce distinct information, yet we know that the demand for tea from China has been progressively and rapidly rising for many years, with no other result than that of diminished prices; and that there is a population which is commonly assumed to be above 300,000,000, and at all hours of the day consuming tea, which only requires some change of preparation to be fit for exportation; thus implying an amount of supply, on which any demand that may be made for foreign export can be after a very short time but slightly felt. We know also that the market has never been drained of tea in any one year, but that there has been always a surplus left to meet any extraordinary demand. We have every reason to believe that the cultivation of the plant may be indefinitely extended.

" We have, moreover, the general experience in all articles, the supply of which is not limited by physical or other causes (such as cotton, &c.), that an increased demand, by stimulating the industry or the enterprise of the parties interested, has the no very distant effect of producing a larger supply at a lower price, instead of permanently raising it.

" If, on the other hand, it should be said, that to convert that into a profitable, which has hitherto been an unprofitable trade, it is necessary that some part of the reduction should go to the benefit of the merchant in increase of price; the answer is, that the mere interest on the duty, if reduced from 2*s.* 2½*d.* to 1*s.*, would, of itself, be nearly enough to make the whole difference between a losing and a living trade, and the whole benefit of the reduction would still be left to the consumer.

" Under these circumstances, your committee have little doubt that the full benefit of any reduction of price would very shortly, if not immediately, accrue to the consumer, and thus, in no longer interval of time, by increased consumption, repair any defalcation which might at first appear.

" It must also be remembered that the increased consumption of sugar consequent on any large increase in that of tea would assist in repairing the loss.

" For these reasons your committee think themselves warranted in recommending to the House, a considerable reduction in the duty on tea at the earliest period which in its wisdom it may seem fit, as most desirable in itself with a view to the comforts and the social habits of the people, as involving but a temporary loss to the revenue, and as essential to the extension of our trade with China, nay, even to its maintenance at the point which it has already reached." *

Effect of a reduction of the tea duty

This report was presented fourteen years ago!—and yet, although the opening of the trade has materially increased the exportation of tea at a reduced price, our duty upon tea is allowed to remain at the present time at no less than 200 per cent. upon the cost price of the article in China. In the face of a commercial treaty, such as that negotiated in 1858 with the Chinese, not even the most urgent necessity ought to allow the continuance of this duty. There can be no doubt that, if it was reduced, the revenue would speedily repair itself from the largely increased consumption which would immediately ensue, especially amongst the poorer classes.

on the revenue,

Considering the interest which London merchants have in this question, it seems wonderful that they allow year after year to pass without agitating for the reduction of duties which would so largely extend their trade with a nation which treaties have opened up to our commerce, and which shows itself so well inclined to consume our manufactures. The opening of the trade with the northern ports of

on commerce.

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* "The British Consul, in his despatch dated 15th of February, 1847, says, 'How long the Chinese will be able to sustain this continual drain (*i. e.* of 2,000,000*l.*) of the precious metals is impossible to determine; but the fact being now well established, that the export of tea to England cannot be increased under the present system of duties, it is not difficult to foresee, that unless a new opening be found for a larger consumption of China exports in our markets, a gradual reduction must take place, either in the quantity or the prices of our imports in China, until they come to a proper level. On the other hand, it is beyond calculation to what extent the Chinese would purchase our woollens and our cottons, were we enabled to take their produce in return, especially after having attained the legalization of the opium trade' He further states, and is confirmed by Sir J. Davis in the statement, that 'it must be borne in mind that the import trade is regulated by and depends wholly on the export trade, and that therefore only an increase of exports can cause a corresponding increase in imports. The China trade being essentially a direct barter trade, it is obvious that unless means can be found to take from the Chinese a larger amount of their principal export, tea, there seems to be but a limited prospect of deriving for the British manufacturing interests all those advantages which the new position we hold in the country consequent on the late war must lead them to expect.'"

China is certain to lead to an immense demand for English goods. Even at the time this page is passing through the press the public are informed by the newspapers that "the trade upon the River Yang-tse-Kiang is extending itself with wonderful rapidity." Whilst trade was confined to Canton, the use of British manufactures by the Chinese was attended with great difficulties. Canton was purposely selected by the Chinese Government as the seat of trade with "the barbarians," on account of its being at the point of the empire most distant from the seat of government. Nor was it political reasons alone which dictated this policy. The finances of the empire were largely increased by it. China possesses scarcely any beasts of burden; almost all the animals of the country are bred and kept for purposes of food. The cost of transport through the country, therefore, becomes a most important addition to the price of every article of consumption. Now, in China, the transport of merchandise, whether on men's backs or by boats drawn by men along the canals, is a monopoly regulated by and in the hands of the Government. Canton is not only the port most distant from the seat of government, but it is also the most distant port from the provinces in which tea is most successfully cultivated. The result was that Canton was the port most favourably situated for the transport monopoly, because the conveyance of tea to Canton, and of foreign merchandise from Canton to Pekin, involved the longest journey, and consequently the highest rates for carriage. In order to be consumed at Pekin, where the coldness of the climate rendered them most useful, our woollen goods had to be conveyed 1,200 miles, involving portage across a mountainous barrier, at either foot of which they had to be unloaded from and again loaded into boats. The

Difficulties attending internal trade from Canton.

consequence was, that only a very small portion of our exports to China ever left the province in which Canton itself is situated; our metals, indeed, were entirely consumed there, as they would not bear the cost of transport. But now that a trade is permitted direct with Pekin, Nankin, and the tea districts, the consumption of goods must be increased most largely, and the more so, as at Shanghae, Foo-chow-foo, and other ports, we can obtain tea free from the large additional cost which the transport of it to Canton formerly involved; and free also from all the extra costs on the merchants resulting from the heavy port duties, and the intense system of corruption prevailing at Canton. It only, in fact, requires that the British Government should reduce the duty on tea, to make China one of the largest, if not absolutely the largest, market in the world for British manufactures. And as "there can be but one great market," and as London is the seat of the tea trade of Europe, all the great commerce of England and China must, inevitably, concentrate itself in London.

Trade direct with the tea districts.

There can be very little doubt, also, now the trade of England is penetrating even to Pekin itself, that a class of superior manufactures may be exported with profit for sale in China. China manufactures her own cotton and her own silks; but it is a matter of question whether the prices of our cotton and the character and novel patterns of our silk goods would not secure them a preference. When Lord Macartney was sent on his embassy in 1794, he was furnished with a present for the emperor, consisting of astronomical and mathematical instruments, an orrery, globes, models of ships, &c., and views of objects not otherwise portable. It is not improbable that our machinery of different sorts may, at no distant period, find a sale amongst this ingenious and industrious people. And if British enterprize will apply itself to the navigation by steam of the great river arteries of China, it is probable that within a moderate period the trade of England with the Chinese may be extended beyond the most sanguine expectation.

Trade of London with RUSSIA.

The trade of London with RUSSIA employs a larger amount of ships and tonnage than any other trade of the port. The London trade with the northern ports of Russia employed, in 1860, no less than 1062 vessels of 234,040 tons. With the southern ports the trade employed 195 vessels of 75,800 tons, making a total of more than 300,000 tons employed in the Russian trade with London. In the list of English ports, Hull, as might be presumed from its natural position, ranks next to London in this trade, employing about 500 ships of nearly 150,000 tons. Liverpool employed 56 ships of about 16,000 tons. Nearly two-thirds of the tonnage employed in this trade is British.

Imports from Russia.

The principal imports from the northern ports of Russia, are, tallow, flax, hemp, timber, and hides; from the southern ports we obtain corn, and also linseed and tallow, the latter article having only recently been brought from the shores of the Black Sea, but having come during the last year in considerable quantities. The total value of our imports from Russia in 1860, exceeded 11,000,000*l*. from the northern, and 5,000,000 from the southern ports; total, 16,000,000*l*. The principal imports from the northern ports were as follows:—

Northern ports.

Tallow	valued at	£2,759,493
Flax	,,	2,579,649
Corn	,,	1,697,328
Wood and Timber . . .	,,	1,062,460
Hemp	,,	908,061
Linseed, Seeds, Flaxseed .	,,	782,103
Bristles	,,	284,673
Wool	,,	194,601
Tar	,,	150,255
Iron in Bars	,,	53,382

Isinglass	valued at	£53,497
Rags	,,	47,653
Bones of Animals	,,	47,106
Quills, Goose and Swan	,,	38,682
Hides and Russia Leather	,,	36,745
Candles, Stearine	,,	29,382
Linen, Manufactures of	,,	28,697
Stearine	,,	25,492
Feathers for Beds	,,	24,030
Oil Seed Cake	,,	21,533

Southern ports.

From the southern ports in 1860 our imports were—

Corn	valued at	£3,740,437
Linseed and Flaxseed	,,	860,182
Tallow	,,	281,504
Wool	,,	163,931
Salted Beef	,,	20,538
Preserved Meats	,,	15,229

Increase of certain exports to Russia.

Our trade with Russia since 1857 has been an increasing trade, in consequence principally of alterations which were made in that year in the Russian tariff. These alterations were important to us, as permitting the introduction of iron and steel, and of machinery of various descriptions, which had previously been practically prohibited. The changes were necessitated by the construction of railroads in Russia, which under their previous trade regulations could not be maintained in consequence of the prohibition which existed against articles which the Russians were utterly unable to provide for themselves. In consequence of these alterations, certain exports from England to Russia have increased as follows:—

	1857.	1860.
Iron	£174,353	£630,044
Steam Engines	61,644	193,477
Agricultural Implements	1,600	48,423

"Other machinery" which was exported in 1856 to the extent of 255,000*l.* has since risen to an annual average export of double that amount.

High rates of duties in Russia.

The amended tariff of 1857 also effected reductions in the duties on various other articles of import, especially on cotton, woollen, and silk fabrics, and on earthenware, sugar, and salt. But the duties still maintained are too high; and a differential duty which prevails in favour of articles imported into Russia inland against those imported by sea, is prejudicial to British commerce, despite the difference which there always must be in favour of the cost of water conveyance.

Their object.

The object of Russia in maintaining high rates of duties is stated to be less the maintenance of revenue than the promotion of a manufacturing industry amongst her own people. But it is wrong to suppose that a people who are not possessed of the first element of manufacturing industry, namely, coal, and who are obliged to smelt the little iron they can bring from Siberia by means of wood fires, can ever hope to compete with the British manufacturer, who has all the first essentials at the first price.

Their futility.

Development of Russian agriculture.

Nothing can be more unwise than the policy of Russia in endeavouring to force a business which is not natural to her climate, her condition, or the habits of her population. By the use of better appliances it is probable that the Russians in a few years will so largely develop their agriculture, which has hitherto been carried on with the rudest implements, as to be able to export produce more largely and to more profit than any other people in Europe. In this they will be greatly aided by their improved means of internal communication. But as a manufacturing nation, everything is against this comparatively thinly populated country, and even in its own markets, it never by any possibility can compete with the productions of Germany and Great Britain admitted at low duties.

The tallow trade of Russia.

Russia supplies England with three-fourths in value of all the tallow we import. This trade, during the last few years, has been interfered with under circumstances which may possibly lead hereafter to remarkable results. Several years since a Company or Society at Moscow commenced a "speculation," as they termed it, to raise the price of tallow in Russia. They soon discovered, in consequence of the large stocks held in London, that it was necessary to operate in the market here for the purpose of maintaining their operations. Their large purchases in London caused tallow to reach a fictitious price in the market so very considerably above its real value as seriously to prejudice its sale. Oils of different descriptions, consequently, began to supersede the use of tallow, and lamps were invented for burning cocoa-nut, Colza, and various other descriptions of oils, which were found to be cheaper than tallow at the price to which that article had reached. At the same time the English merchants sought to develop the tallow trade of South America, Australia, and other countries, from which considerable supplies were obtained.

The "great tallow speculation."

Nevertheless, the Moscow speculators, being extremely well supported, were able for some time to maintain their position. The price of tallow was kept up notwithstanding the largely increased stocks on hand both in London and St. Petersburg. But such a state of things naturally could not last in the face of the exertions made by English merchants to secure tallow from other countries. In the month of June, 1861, much to the relief of the tallow market, the great Moscow speculators were compelled to succumb, having lost, it is said, a sum of money by their speculations variously estimated at from 300,000*l*. to 500,000*l*. The price of tallow in England, which was 60*s*. per cwt. in January, 1860, fell to 43*s*. 6*d*. in the month of August, 1861, with the prospect of a still

Its failure.

further decline. The fall, however, was checked by a large fire at the riverside wharves, which destroyed nearly 10,000 casks of tallow, and by a demand which sprang up for a supply for the Continent of Europe, where the stocks had fallen to a minimum during the progress of the speculation.

The flax and hemp trade. The large trade which we carry on with Russia for flax and hemp chiefly centres itself at Riga, though large quantities of hemp come from St. Petersburg. **Riga.** In our market, however, Riga qualities of both articles have the preference in price. Russian flax and hemps are generally preferred to those of any other countries, in consequence probably of the care taken in their shipment, the classification of qualities, and the assortment, inspection and branding by official authorities, who are said to perform their duties with laudable exactness and impartiality. The flax shipped at Riga is grown chiefly in White Russia, and the trade is principally carried on by our own merchants, who do more than half the business of that city. The hemp trade, however, has decreased of late years in consequence of the general substitution of iron for hemp in the manufacture of cables, cordage, &c., and also in consequence of the use of jute, an article of lower price, which we derive from the East Indies, and which is a good substitute for hemp and flax where the article of manufacture is not liable to be exposed to the action of water.

The Russian Company. We have seen in previous pages of this volume that the original establishment of English trade with Russia was due to the Russian Company, first incorporated by Philip and Mary for the discovery of a north-western passage to India. This Company had at first an absolute monopoly of all trade with the dominions of the Czar. The monopoly was limited in Russia at various periods, as other nations, especially the Dutch, sought opportunities for commerce; and ultimately, by statute of William III.,* the Company was virtually thrown open in England, any merchant being allowed admission to it on payment of 5*l.*, and being permitted to conduct his business as a private adventurer entirely as if the Company was abolished. The Russian Company, however, continued, up to last year, to levy a number of small duties on all goods imported from Russian ports, under the authority of its original patent, which granted them those duties at a time when the trade was exclusively in their own hands. In the aggregate the duties amounted to about 11,000*l.* per annum, of which the London trade of course paid the largest proportion.

Duties levied by the Company.

Agitation against the duties.

For some years there prevailed, among a powerful party in this country, a strong desire to get rid of the duties payable to the Russia Company, which were said to be vexatious to the merchant, whilst no sufficient services are performed for them. These dues were raised under the several names of "Lastage," "Address Money," "Church Money," "Company's Agent," "Cronstadt Agency," and "Passes;" but, except for the "Church Money," it did not appear that any real services of value were performed for any of those various items of taxation. The "Church Money," which amounted to about 2,000*l.* a-year, was paid to the Committee of the Chapel of the British Factory at St. Petersburg, and for the assistance of any British poor who may be found in that city or in Cronstadt; and it was contended strongly by the Company that these were payments which could not be abandoned without disadvantage. On this head the contest between the Company and the merchants opposed to it was extremely keen. Two different Committees of the House of Commons reported upon the matter; one, on the Local Charges on Shipping in 1853, reported:—

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* 10 & 11 Wm. III. c. 6.

Reports of Parliamentary Committees on these dues.

> "That if it provides a Church establishment in Russia, in favour and support of which British residents of all religious persuasions agree to waive their doctrinal differences—if, under its operation, the poor of the increasing communities of British subjects are supported, and the education of their young provided for; and if it afford the means of union and common action in all cases where the interests of trade may be affected by political events,—then it would be peculiarly undesirable to break up this association, which it would be impossible to revive under another form."

Whilst a later Committee, the Select Committee on Merchant Shipping, 1860, reported:—

> "With regard to certain dues still levied by the Russia Company on ships and on goods carried in ships, we deem the continuance of any such tax quite unjustifiable. In the present state of our political and commercial relations with the Emperor of Russia, no exceptional legislation is required to secure protection for English residents in the dominions of Russia. The charter granted to the Russia Company in bygone ages has survived its original design, and the religious and charitable objects, however pious or benevolent their character, to which the dues on goods carried in ships are applied, having but little reference to maritime trade, ought not to be compulsorily cast upon merchants and shipowners who do not receive any direct benefit from them."

The dispute was virtually settled in 1861, by the Russia Company themselves, who informed the Government and the Legislature that "they would "no longer levy dues on the import of goods into "the United Kingdom."

Adjustment of the question.

Our exports to the ports of Russia (both North and South) in 1860, amounted to 5,446,279*l*. The principal items of our own produce and manufactures exported to the northern ports were as follows:—

Exports to Russia.

Northern ports.

Iron	valued at	£630,044
Machinery	,,	630,947
Woollen Yarn	,,	362,842
Cotton Yarn	,,	183,039
Coals, &c.	,,	126,783
Lead and Shot	,,	108,056
Hardware and Cutlery	,,	102,474
Cotton Goods	,,	84,454
Woollen Goods	,,	77,154
Soda	,,	71,880
Tin (unwrought)	,,	57,044
Agricultural Implements	,,	48,423
Linen Manufactures	,,	40,496
Salt	,,	40,061
Silk Manufactures	,,	17,318
Tin Plates	,,	15,688
Earthenware and Porcelain	,,	13,427

In addition we sent to these ports, foreign and colonial produce to the following amounts :—

Raw Cotton	valued at	£1,413,264
Indigo	,,	236,449
Coffee	,,	89,260
Cochineal	,,	55,234
Wine	,,	29,353
Rice	,,	17,034

Southern ports.

The exports to the southern ports, which amounted in all to 477,042*l.* were in much the same articles and proportions. The Board of Trade returns, however, cannot be entirely relied upon in regard to these articles, as many of the ships which trade to the Black Sea and the sea of Azov, clear out for Constantinople, so that exports intended for Russia are assigned in the tables to Turkey.

Our trade with Southern Russia.

The trade of the Black Sea has, only at a comparatively recent period, been opened freely to foreign nations; and it is only since the repeal of our own Corn Laws, that we could have had much intercourse with a country whose principal production is corn. Odessa has hitherto been the principal port frequented by the English; but of late years a considerable proportion of the corn trade has been carried on with Taganrog, at the head of the sea of Azov, and with

Kaffa (or Theodosia) in the Crimea. The fact is, that Odessa is most unfortunately situated for trade. The Russian Government, at the end of the last century, sought to establish this port as a commercial entrepot, by giving it considerable privileges. But they have discovered that they sought to establish what has been well described as "a shop in a desert." Odessa, **Odessa.** situated on an arid plain, between the rivers Dniester, Bug, and Dnieper, is, in fact, at a considerable distance from the estuary of either; and the consequence is, that the principal portion of the corn brought down those rivers is obliged to be conveyed from different points to Odessa in carts, drawn by oxen, over roads, wretched at all times, and absolutely impassable at some seasons of the year. These impediments to internal communication might, no doubt, be obviated by a railway system; but, in the southern parts of Russia, the towns are so few and far between, and the country appears to be so thinly peopled, that it is doubtful whether railways could be constructed with profit.

Taganrog. Taganrog, on the sea of Azov, is at the estuary of the Don, by which river immense quantities of corn are brought down. Up to a recent period these were sent down to Kertch, where a large trade is carried on, and coastwise also, to Kaffa and Odessa; but vessels are now finding their way up the Sea of Azov to Taganrog itself, despite difficulties of navigation arising from the shallowness of the sea, and from its being at times completely shut by frost. By a canal from the Don to the river Wolga, the sea of Azov is connected with the Caspian Sea; and thus Taganrog becomes a port of vast importance to trade, as opening up a rich interior country of immense extent, which can be most readily supplied with foreign commodities. The trade of the Caspian is, at the present time, almost exclusively in the hands of the Russians. That they are not without enterprise, is established by the fact, that the Caspian and Wolga are both navigated by steam vessels.

Balance of trade with Russia against England.

It would appear from the official account that the balance of our trade with Russia is against England in the proportion of sixteen millions to five and a half. Some abatement from this there would probably be in consequence of the circumstances under which the trade is conducted, and the enhanced prices at which our products are sold to the Russians;* but, with whatever abatement, the position of the case is too striking not to receive notice. Russia is a comparatively rich country, and England carries on with it the largest trade carried on with any European nation. We receive direct from Russia 16,000,000*l.* of goods per annum, and only send to her direct 5,446,000*l.*, of which little more than 3,000,000*l.* are articles of the produce and manufacture of the United Kingdom!

Inquiry as to the causes of this.

Something is, of course, due to the tariff to which reference has already been made. Still more is due to the comparative want of facilities for internal communication, which are so great that they practically limit the consumption of imported articles to St. Petersburg and other ports of importation and the country immediately adjacent to such ports. Although by means of rivers and canals, the Neva at St. Petersburg is actually connected with the Caspian Sea, yet the great distance to be traversed and the very short period of the year during which the rivers and canals are navigable, render the conveyance of goods both difficult and costly. This applies even more to imported than to exported commodities; for the pro-

Absence of facilities for conveying goods into the interior.

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* Some allowance should also be made for British goods purchased by Russian merchants at Hamburg, and carried to St. Petersburg by the steamers, *viâ* Kiel, or Lubeck.

ducts of the country sent down the rivers for exportation are loaded, in the winter months, into boats which take advantage of the high water and float down with the current as soon as the snow and ice begin to melt. The cargoes up the rivers are obliged to be carried up slowly when the stream is low in the autumn; and if they should be blocked by ice before they reach their destinations they have to be conveyed, during the winter, by sledges. The barks on which goods are floated down are also mostly broken up and sold for firewood on their arrival at their port of destination, so that comparatively few return. Thus the cost of conveyance into very much exceeds that out of the country, an evil which the establishment of railroads through the empire alone can remedy.

Restrictions on commerce in Russia.

But perhaps the greatest drawback to trade with Russia is to be found in the way in which commerce in that country has hitherto been conducted. Up to June, 1860, none but native Russians were permitted to engage in the internal trade of the country. This restriction, although it was evaded, operated prejudicially upon the foreigner who imported goods, by compelling him to sell to a native at the port of arrival. Again, the Russian trader was required by law to be registered, and to be possessed of a certain amount of capital, according to which he was classed as a merchant, an inland trader, or a shopkeeper. These restrictions prevented many persons from trading at all, and limited that competition which is the life and soul of business. They were swept away by an Imperial Ukase of the 19th June, 1860, a period too recent to enable any idea to be formed of the result of the proceeding. The modification of such restrictions cannot fail, however, to be beneficial to commerce generally, and to exercise an important influence on the trade of the country. It may be hoped, also, that it will alter the trading system of Russia. At present the practice is for the foreign merchant to make payments in advance for the produce which he purchases, and to sell goods for the supply of the interior on credit. The Russian, in fact, makes his purchases in the summer, when he comes to St. Petersburg to trade, on the strength of his produce to be sent down in the following spring. Hence it results that the English merchant in Russia must be possessed of considerable capital, and must have some personal acquaintance with the persons he trusts: two conditions which necessarily limit the number of the English merchants settled in Russia. The system of trade, also, appears to be one of large profits and slow returns, as opposed to small profits and quick returns: a system which abates the surprise we might otherwise feel at finding the balance of trade appear so largely against us.

The trade with Russia, in fact, requires both internal and external enterprise for its development. With the vast population and resources of that empire it is absurd to suppose that under an enterprising system of trade 5,400,000*l.* could represent anything like the value of British exports to that country. Had the wealthy society of Moscow speculators who lost their 300,000*l.* in endeavouring to raise the price of tallow in Russia, embarked their capital in that or any other of the Russian products, with a view to make a profit by a genuine trade, it is probable that, instead of being obliged to succumb, they would have by this time doubled their principal, whilst by opening up the internal trade of their country to British manufactures, they would have added to the comfort, happiness, and wealth of their own people.

Trade with SWEDEN and NORWAY.

Whilst our trade with Russia may be said to be carried on almost exclusively by English merchants, that with SWEDEN and NORWAY is conducted in almost as great a degree under the flags of those countries, and for the account of their own dealers. The traders of Norway, and to some extent of Sweden also, are usually the owners of ships, who freight them on their own account with the produce of their country, which they bring to England for sale, obtaining freight here for any foreign port, if they can, or, if not, returning to their own port with such cargo as they may purchase, or still more frequently in ballast. A very common practice with a Swedish or Norwegian vessel is to bring a cargo of timber, corn, iron, or ice, to London, and having found a market for it, to clear out in ballast for Newcastle or Sunderland, and there take in a cargo of coals with which to proceed home. This will account for the discrepancy between the number of Swedish and Norwegian vessels which enter and leave the Port of London from and for their own countries, and also for the very large number of Swedish and Norwegian vessels which clear out of the Port of London in ballast, as shown in the following return of the entries and clearances for 1860 :—

Clearances of Swedish ships in ballast.

PORT OF LONDON.

	SHIPS ENTERED, 1860.									
	BRITISH.				FOREIGN.				TOTAL.	
	With Cargo.		In Ballast.		With Cargo.		In Ballast.			
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
FromSweden	108	19,750	—	—	812	170,154	—	—	920	189,904
FromNorway	5	664	—	—	313	96,285	—	—	318	96,949
	SHIPS CLEARED, 1860.									
For Sweden	13	4,327	6	1,533	68	11,095	344	83,535	431	100,490
For Norway	—	—	1	206	34	7,391	427	136,169	462	143,766

Thus we see that nearly the whole of the outward trade to these countries is conducted by the Swedes and Norwegians themselves, the English only employing in it 13 ships out of 893. Of these 893, we also see that no less than 771 left London in ballast, only 102 carrying back cargo, whilst, on the other hand, every vessel that entered the port from Sweden and Norway, without a single exception, brought cargo to the port.

Accounted for.

If, however, we turn to the records of shipping at Newcastle, we shall find this state of things reversed.

PORT OF NEWCASTLE.

	SHIPS ENTERED, 1860.									
	BRITISH.				FOREIGN.				TOTAL.	
	With Cargo.		In Ballast.		With Cargo.		In Ballast.			
	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
From Sweden	5	781	—	—	58	7,939	3	445	66	9,165
From Norway	—	—	—	—	144	17,050	170	45,033	314	62,083
	SHIPS CLEARED, 1860.									
For Sweden	85	14,435	—	—	499	74,683	—	—	584	89,118
For Norway	7	1,275	—	—	237	28,483	1	121	245	29,879

Thus, whilst only 380 vessels entered this port from Sweden and Norway, one half of which were in ballast, no less than 829 vessels sailed for those countries, of which number only one solitary small vessel did not carry cargo. This shipping, as before observed, was probably almost altogether composed of the Swedish and Norwegian vessels which had entered the Thames with cargo, and gone out of it in ballast.

Imports from Sweden.

The produce sent to England by the Swedes consists chiefly of wood and timber (principally sawn into deals and boards), corn (chiefly oats and barley), and iron (unwrought and in bars). The values of the quantities imported in 1860 were as follows :—

Wood and Timber	valued at £1,388,613
Corn	„ 1,005,862
Iron	„ 645,621
Steel (unwrought)	„ 64,012

The total value of our imports from Sweden in 1860 amounted to 3,193,308*l.*

Timber.

The supply of timber sent by Sweden to England is, at the present time, larger than that of any other country. In 1861, London received the following quantities :—

TIMBER IMPORTED INTO LONDON, 1861.

	CARGOES.	TONS.
From Sweden	368	115,472
„ Prussia	271	80,312
„ Norway	230	75,230
„ Russia	227	60,839
„ Finland	50	16,974
„ Canada	134	105,648
„ New Brunswick, &c.	92	54,356
„ Africa and India, &c.	68	36,204
Total	1,440	545,035

The quality of the Swedish timber is said to excel that of the timbers received from Russia and Prussia; and being sold at a cheaper rate it commands our market. The Swedish timbers chiefly come from ports in the Gulf of Bothnia. They are sawn in the form of deals, battens, lathwood, masts, balks, and railway sleepers. This trade is carried on principally under the flags of Prussia and Mecklenburgh, for account of English merchants who have recently embarked considerable capital in the acquisition of large forests, which they cut down and saw upon the shore. Several of these English companies are established on the principle of "limited liability."

Oats.

The corn sent from Sweden is principally oats. The exportation of oats from Sweden to England is only second in quantity to that of Russia, and is double that of Prussia and the Hanse Towns. It has progressed during the last five years in the following ratio:—

EXPORTATION OF OATS FROM SWEDEN TO ENGLAND.

YEAR.	QUARTERS.	COMPUTED VALUE.
1856	200,141	£240,169
1857	258,110	297,733
1858	427,885	470,585
1859	443,087	485,248
1860	554,369	655,504

Iron and steel.

It appears, at first sight, singular that England, which produces more iron than all the other countries of the world together, should import iron and steel from Sweden to the extent of nearly three-quarters of a million annually. The fact is accounted for by the very superior quality of Swedish iron, which is found to be especially well fitted for conversion into steel, and for use in the manufacture of high-priced articles. It would appear, indeed, that in consequence of the great consumption of British iron of late years, less attention has been paid by our own manufacturers to quality than to quantity. The object here has been to produce iron to the largest amount, and at the smallest price; whilst in Sweden the production being limited, and the smelting process by means of charcoal difficult, the stimulus to trade has been less, and greater opportunity has been afforded to attend to the manufacture. In a recent address to the Institute of Civil Engineers by its present president, Mr. Hawkshaw, that able engineer said—

Mr. Hawkshaw on the iron manufactures of Great Britain.

"We are, I believe, in the infancy only of discoveries in the improvement of the manufacture of steel and iron. Until lately, the nature of the demand for iron rather retarded than encouraged improvements in its manufacture. Railways consumed iron in vast quantities, and railway companies cared nothing about quality. They were driven to seek a tolerably good material for engine and carriage tyres, but as it respected the vast consumption in the shape of rails, they were implicitly guided by the lowest prices. As long as this system continued, it suited the iron-masters to manufacture a cheap article in large quantities, and they therefore gave themselves no concern to establish a better state of things. But heavy engines, high speeds, and an enlarged traffic, are gradually working a change. We are beginning to find that iron of the very best quality has hardly durance enough for rails or locomotive tyres; that there is no economy in putting down rails which require taking up again in a year or two; and, in short, that the increased strains arising from the accelerated motion of railways, steamboats, and machinery in general, are necessitating a better material.

"In marine steam-engines, which have received much attention, and where great attempts have been made at perfection, paddle-shafts, crank-axles, screws, and other portions, have, as before intimated, already attained an unwieldy size, and the *vis inertiæ* and weight of such masses of metal are of themselves no slight impediment to the improvement of steam-navigation, and would be greatly obviated by the use of a stronger material.

"Fortunately for this country, just at the time that the use of iron is extending, and improvements in its manufacture are developing, fresh discoveries are made of the raw material, and men seem to stumble, as it were, by accident on new fields of iron ore, in places where those mineral riches have laid dormant for centuries, to await a new era and another age, when ships, like knights of old, are to go forth to battle in complete armour, and when the civil engineer has assumed the duties which devolved on the smith and armourer of former times."

Exports to Sweden.

Our exports to Sweden in 1860 amounted to less than a million; namely, 940,613*l*. The principal items exported were,—

HOME PRODUCTS.

Coals	valued at	£90,583
Iron	„	62,030
Machinery	„	57,077
Cotton Yarn	„	51,634
Woollen Goods	„	47,070
Cotton Goods	„	28,539
Woollen Yarn	„	28,843
Hardwares	„	27,108
Linseed Oil	„	21,174
Apparels, Slops, and Haberdashery	„	14,533
Soda	„	11,847

COLONIAL AND FOREIGN PRODUCTS.

Cotton, raw	valued at	£142,701
Sugar, unrefined	„	70,493
Wool	„	35,307
Hides	„	33,396
Indigo	„	25,185
Coffee	„	13,350
Palm Oil	„	12,143
Wine	„	7,228
Guano	„	5,847
Tea	„	3,176

Their character.

The character of these exports appears to show that the Swedes are relying largely upon their own manufacturing industry. They take raw products, such as iron and coals, to a much greater extent than articles of manufacture; woollen manufactures being those of which they require the largest supply, and of those only to the extent of 47,000*l*. This absence of demand for English products is not caused by any unnaturally high tariff in Sweden, but rather from the character of the people, whose habits are simple, and whose wants are comparatively few.

Export of guano.

One item in the account of exports to Sweden deserves observation. Although guano was exported to that country to a comparatively small amount in 1860, there was, in previous years, a very large supply sent to Sweden; amounting, in 1856, to as much as 53,000*l*. The fact is that the Swedes, as their country has been rapidly cleared of timber, have applied themselves with great industry to agricultural pursuits; and, notwithstanding the character of the climate and the general inferiority of the soil, have made great progress in the production of corn, as we have seen in the account of her exports.

Internal communications of Sweden.

The internal communications of Sweden are very favourable to her exports. The port of Gothenburg, which stands next to Stockholm in the trade of the country, is peculiarly well situated in this respect. By means of the river Gotha, the Wettern Lake, and the Tröllhatten Canal, Gothenburg is open to the whole interior, and possesses the advantage of a direct water communication with Stockholm and the Baltic without the necessity of a sea passage round the Sound. The construction of the canal which enables vessels to avoid the falls of Tröllhatten was long an object of the sovereigns of Sweden, and its accomplishment has proved of the highest value to their country.

It may be hoped that as the resources of Sweden become developed, and as her people increase in wealth, her demand for foreign productions will increase, in which case London, which is her largest customer, will probably also be the source from which she will draw the largest proportion of her supplies. Comparatively small as is the whole value of our exports to Sweden at the present time, their amount demonstrates the beneficial results of the adoption of free-trade principles in England, for, in 1846, our exports to that country amounted to only 146,654*l.*, little more than the trade of Great Britain with the Canary Islands!

Trade with Norway.

From Norway our imports, in 1860, were valued at 1,160,992*l.*; and of this amount the wood and timber was valued at 933,918*l.* In the list of smaller items imported from Norway, the following, however, are worthy of mention:—

Fish (principally Lobsters)	valued at	£71,492
Seal skins, undressed	„	36,792
Copper ore	„	23,658
Ice	„	13,718

The ice trade.

The ice trade of Norway is a business opened by the Norwegians themselves some few years since, shortly after the Americans began to send Wenham Lake ice from Boston to Great Britain. The trade in ice is naturally in some degree dependent on the character of the season in England. In the very hot summer of 1859 we imported from Norway 31,470 tons of ice, of the computed value of 1*l*. per ton. In the cool summer of 1860 the importation fell to 13,718 tons. The Norwegian ice is principally sent to us from the town of Drobâk, on the Christiania Fiord. The arrangements for receiving, storing, and shipping it there are very ingenious and simple. Drobâk is situated on the side of the fiord, which has a great depth of water on each of its shores. On the hills, which rise precipitously above the little town, are large ponds, from which the ice is cut out in the winter, by very simple means, in blocks of about three feet square. These are passed by a series of inclined planes down the hills to the ice-houses at Drobâk, where they are stored in sawdust till the following summer. By another series of inclined planes, formed in the simplest manner of fir planks, the blocks of ice are then passed out of the ice-houses into the holds of the ships lying in the fiord, the process occupying scarcely any time, and being almost costless.

Consumption of ice in England.

Unfortunately, the bulk of the English, even of the upper classes, have yet to learn the advantage and luxury of using ice. In the United States it is found on every table, and enters into the composition of almost every summer beverage, besides being largely used for the preservation of food. Probably the Norwegians owe it to the circumstance of their trade being so largely in their own hands, that efficient means have not yet been discovered for selling ice in London. The carts of wholesale traders deliver daily supplies of the article to clubs and other establishments which take large quantities, but there are no efficient means of providing it to smaller householders, who, if they obtain it at all, can only do so from the fishmonger (!),* at a price highly disproportionate to its real value, and not always in the best condition. If its retail supply could be arranged on moderate terms, it is probable that the demand for ice in London would soon be greater than in New York, and the Norwegians would find employment for a large amount of shipping in supplying the article.†

The timber trade of Norway.

Firewood forms a very important branch of the trade of Norway with London. The quantity imported in 1861, must, it is said, have occupied more than 55,000 tons of shipping. Christiania is the principal seat of this trade. The fir timber is floated from the interior down the various rivers which empty themselves into the fiord, until they reach the saw-mills to which they are consigned, and at which they are sawn

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* The ice trade probably got into the hands of the fishmongers, from their being brought into connexion with the Norwegians as dealers in fish and lobsters, and from their personally frequenting the markets at the east end of London, to which the Norwegians most resort. In no other way can such an anomaly be accounted for. It might have been supposed that the "butterman" would have been a better purveyor of such an article, useful as ice must be in the preservation of butter and cream in summer weather. But who has yet seen ice in a butter shop? The buttermen of London deal with English producers only, and do not come into contact with the Norwegian traders.

† The home consumption of ice in the United States is estimated at little less than 300,000 tons a year. In 1854 the quantity exported was 156,540 tons from Boston, and 20,000 tons from New York. A large proportion of this finds its way to the East and West Indies.

The fish trade of, Bergen.

into deals, boards, or battens, cut up for firewood, or hewn for making herring-barrels. The vast water-power of the country enables these several processes to be carried on without difficulty and at very small expense. Christiania deals formerly obtained a higher relative value than any other wood in our market; but they have recently been in less demand, American spruce being preferred for cheapness; and the white deals of Sweden and Finland for quality. Bergen, on the west coast of Norway, is the source of the fish trade. This town is celebrated for its salted cod, or stock-fish, of which from twenty-five to thirty million pounds is annually exported, but very little, if any, of it comes to England, our supply of that article being derived from Newfoundland. We receive from Bergen, however, immense numbers of lobsters, which are brought to the Thames in vessels constructed for the purpose. It should be observed, however, that the average amount of our trade with Norway for fish is very much lower than the sum given above as the computed value of the import of that article in 1860.

Exports to Norway.

Our exports to Norway amounted, in 1860, to 630,773*l.*, being in better proportion to the imports than in our trade with Sweden. The principal articles exported were:—

Iron	valued at	£87,124
Woollen goods	,,	67,628
Coals	,,	56,793
Machinery	,,	51,350
Cotton goods	,,	49,058
Hardware and Cutlery	,,	32,361
Apparel, Slops, &c.	,,	20,678
Linen goods	,,	18,770
Earthenware	,,	14,784
Oil, Linseed	,,	8,865
Leather		7,633

Cotton, raw	valued at	£69,890
Sugar, unrefined	,,	20,192
Coffee	,,	5,585

Hides, untanned	valued at	£4,494
Tea	„	4,017
Wine	„	3,899
Indigo	„	3,761
Tobacco	„	2,119

Consumption of liquors in Norway.

It is curious that ale and beer does not appear amongst the above items. Up to a comparatively recent period the Norwegian drink most commonly in use was a nauseating spirituous liquor, called finckle, very speedily productive of intoxication. Of late years great efforts have been made in Norway to establish sober and temperate habits among the population; and happily those efforts have been attended with great success. In order to this object, liquors of a different description from finckle were required to be supplied for general consumption, and a large brewery was established in Christiania, which arranged an excellent system of supplying the interior with beer in bottles at very reasonable rates. Besides this, the light wines of Bordeaux were imported into Norway, and distributed through the country with great success. The trade in these wines is carried on by means of the ships which convey stock-fish from Bergen to Bordeaux; and so successful has been the attempt to extend their use that there is scarcely a village in Norway where a bottle of Bordeaux wine may not be obtained at a price very little above prime cost, and at less than, under the reduced duty, we can obtain wine of similar quality in England. It is probable that had the trade with Norway been principally in the hands of English merchants more might have been done to induce the consumption of English articles. Our commodities are well appreciated by the Norwegian people, and the supply of them to the flourishing little towns of the interior is now greatly facilitated by the railway which has been made by English engineers and contractors from Christiania to

Eidsvol, and by the navigation of the lakes and fiords by steamers, which have been supplied from this country for the purpose, and which are almost invariably in the charge of English engineers.

Trade with DENMARK.

To no country, except to our own, has the Repeal of the Corn Laws and the establishment of a system of Free Trade in England been more advantageous than to DENMARK. The agricultural and pastoral character of that country, and its proximity to our own shores, eminently fitted it for supplying England with articles of food. Accordingly, since our trade has been opened, an immense and annually increasing supply of corn and cattle has been imported from Denmark, raising our importations from that country to 2,575,000*l.* per annum. In 1860, we imported from Denmark:—

Imports.

Corn, of all sorts	to the value of	£1,678 692
Cattle,—Oxen, Horses, and Sheep.	„	503,508
Wool,—Sheep and Lambs . . .	„	101,039
Oil Seed-Cake	„	78,315
Butter	„	49,351
Bacon and Pork	„	41,657
Bones of Animals	„	17,073
Seal Skins	„	15,412
Hides	„	12,102
Fish	„	12,078

The larger proportion of these articles could not have been imported here at all under the former protective system of this country.

The cattle trade.

The cattle trade with Denmark, which has grown into so much importance, is at present carried on between Sleswig and the river Thames. On the fine pasturages of the former country herds of cattle are now fattened for the English market, under circumstances most favourable to their speedy development, and the Sleswiger is rapidly learning the art of fattening cattle in the most expeditious, and consequently in the most profitable manner. The beasts are brought to Tonning, on the German ocean, either by road or by the railway which crosses the peninsula from Flensburg and Rendsburg to that port. At Tonning, they are shipped in steam-vessels, principally belonging to the port of London, by which they are brought to the Thames with tolerable expedition: and, after a short refreshment in the marshes below Blackwall, are carried at once to the Metropolitan Cattle Market. This trade has increased during the last five years in the following ratio:— Its increase.

ANIMALS IMPORTED FROM DENMARK.*

YEAR.	NUMBER.	COMPUTED VALUE.
1856	27,196	£336,099
1857	32,841	406,530
1858	22,608	251,897
1859	37,759	428,164
1860	48,863	503,508

It is only to be regretted that the supply is not greater. In proportion to the supply required for the consumption of London, the importation is small indeed. The returns of the market show that, in 1860, the cattle exposed in the metropolitan market numbered:— Consumption of cattle in London.

Oxen	295,018
Sheep	1,570,080
Calves	27,309
Pigs	27,030
TOTAL	1,919,437

The total number of foreign oxen in the market in the year was 54,079, or not one-sixth of the whole.

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* It should be observed that there is an addition to this supply, which comes through Hamburg. The growth of the trade is shown by the fact that, in 1845, Denmark only exported to England 57 head of oxen, and 44,694 lbs. of meat.

Exports to Denmark.

Our chief exports to Denmark are—

Coal	valued in 1860 at	£166,681
Iron	,,	146,981
Cotton Yarn	,,	98,737
Cotton Manufactures	,,	58,323
Woollen Manufactures	,,	40,156
Herrings*	,,	31,689
Linens	,,	29,807
Linen Yarn	,,	21,764
Hardwares and Cutlery	,,	19,862
Soda	,,	15,743
Salt	,,	9,320
Machinery	,,	8,575
Tin Plates	,,	4,217

Tea	valued in 1860 at	£45,688
Indigo	,,	27,671
Sugar	,,	21,455
Linseed	,,	11,89
Rice	,,	11,195
Coffee	,,	6,183
Guano	,,	5,711
Rum	,,	5,532
Cotton, Raw	,,	5,092
Wine	,,	3,659

Our total exports in 1860 to Denmark *direct* were valued at 915,912*l.*; but it should be observed that Denmark derives a supply of British goods through Hamburg, both by legitimate and illegitimate commerce. The Danish customs' duties on certain manufactured articles are sufficiently high to render a contraband trade across her frontier profitable; and in a country so geographically situated as Denmark, the trade of smuggling is easy.

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* It seems remarkable that England should export herrings to a country so bountifully furnished with bays and wide inlets, and whose seas were said by Saxo Gramaticus (a chronicler of the twelfth century) to be "so full of fish that "ships could scarcely get through them, and fishing apparatus was not required, "as the fish could be caught by hand." It is not easy to ascertain the cause of the great decrease in the resort of fish to the Danish coast and fjords. The herring fishery has given no profit since 1828, when so many herrings were caught that 100,000 barrels were exported. Since then the returns have been very small, and, except in Jutland, the Danes have gradually abandoned their fisheries for the more profitable occupation of agriculture. In addition to the import from England, there is a very large annual importation of fish of various sorts from Iceland and the Faroe Islands. The desertion of the coast of Denmark by the herring is one of those piscatorial phenomena for which science has not yet accounted. It has occurred at previous periods in the history of the country, out the shoal at some period or other has always returned to the coast.

Considering that Denmark is by no means a densely populated country, and that, until recently, the people, by the high tariffs both of their own and of other nations, as well as by internal restrictions of other sorts, have been denied the opportunity of developing their trade, it cannot be considered that our commerce with Denmark is unsatisfactory. It is gratifying to find that the consumption of what may be regarded as the luxuries of life is gradually increasing in that country in proportion to the increase of its wealth, and the more favourable opportunities which are now offered for obtaining the commodities.

The tonnage of the shipping which entered the Thames from Denmark in 1860 was 78,873, of which 32,000 was foreign, and 46,000 British. Nearly all the London trade with Denmark is carried on in steamers, so far as our own shipping is concerned; indeed, the cattle-trade could not be otherwise conducted, so that here again we have an illustration of the advantages of steam propulsion.

Trade with PRUSSIA.

The trade with the ports of PRUSSIA, carried on with London, employed, in 1860, 934 vessels, of 177,442 tons burden, or about the same number and tonnage as the trade of Sweden. The imports and exports were, however, very much larger than from that country. Our imports from Prussian ports in 1860 amounted to upwards of 7,500,000*l.*, and our exports to nearly 3,000,000*l.*, exclusive of the quantity of goods which find their way into Prussia from England, through Hamburg and the Hanse towns.

The principal imports were—

Imports from Prussia.

Corn	valued at	£4,361,141
Wood and Timber	,,	1,588,020
Seeds (Clover, Linseed, Rape, and Tares).	,,	490,309
Spelter	,,	268,138
Oil, Rape	,,	97,786
Oil Seed-Cake	,,	96,540
Rags	,,	91,383
Wool	,,	65,804
Pork, Salted	,,	34,359
Spruce Beer	,,	23,716
Spirits	,,	22,584
Bones	,,	13,882
Hides	,,	8,544
Bristles	,,	3,338

Trade of Stettin.

Stettin, situated on the Oder, which is the natural port of Berlin, and which communicates with it by railway, is the principal port of importation in Prussia; and since the abolition of the Sound-dues, in 1857, the trade of this port has more than doubled. This extraordinary increase of trade in so short a period is due also to the position of Stettin, which, by means of the railways, now communicates, through Berlin, with all the western parts of Germany on the one hand, and with Posen, Silesia, Poland, Galicia, Bohemia and Austria upon the other. The Oder, on which Stettin is situated, flows through the centre of the Prussian dominions, and is united by means of canals with the Elbe, the Vistula, and other rivers, by means of which Stettin is able to send her imports into the very heart of Germany. Another main cause of the great increase of the trade of Stettin is to be found in the improvement of the entrance to the Oder at Swinemunde, where there was formerly a bar, over which no vessels could pass drawing more than seven feet water; but by dredging and the construction of breakwaters, this has been so much improved that vessels drawing eighteen feet can now be admitted.

Dantzic.

Whilst Stettin is the largest port of importation in Prussia, Dantzic rivals it in respect of exports. This city, situated on one of the mouths of the Vistula, has the command of a great internal navigation, and communicates also by railway with the whole of West Prussia and the Russian frontier. The wheat of Poland comes down to Dantzic in flat-bottomed boats, suited to the navigation of the Vistula, the Bug, and the other shallow rivers of the country. These barges are rudely made of fir. They are about seventy-five feet long and twenty feet broad, and hold from 150 to 200 quarters of corn. Long fir-trees are placed at the bottom of the barges, on which they lay hurdles. These are covered with mats made of rye-straw, which serve the purpose of dunnage. The wheat is thrown on the mats, piled as high as the gunwale, and left uncovered. It consequently suffers on the transit, not only from the pilfering of the crew and others, but from the weather. The rain, which is sure to fall sooner or later, during a voyage that extends over many weeks and sometimes months, penetrates the wheat to the extent of an inch or an inch and a half, and causes the grain to germinate. The surface of these boats consequently becomes covered with a spring crop, and they assume the appearance of floating corn-fields. But the fibres soon form a thick covering, which prevents the rain from penetrating or doing further damage; and the main bulk, being thus protected, arrives at Dantzic in fair condition. There it is spread abroad, exposed to the sun, and dried, and subsequently stored in the huge granaries of the place, in which it is again turned over two or three times a week, and kept subject to good ventilation. The men who navigate the boats down the Vistula have very generally to return to Poland on foot.

Corn trade.

The warehouses of Dantzic are very large. It is estimated that 500,000 quarters of wheat can be stored in the Dantzic granaries, which is almost double the amount of the average stock in hand. The loading of ships from the granaries is executed with much despatch.

Cost of Polish wheat supplied from Dantzic.

The corn trade of Poland is in the hands principally of Polish Jews, who purchase the corn from the growers and resell it to the merchants, deliverable at the port at which it is intended to be shipped. In some instances of great estates the proprietors communicate directly with the Dantzic merchants, and send down the corn by their own serfs. It has been estimated that the prime cost of the wheat in Poland may average 20*s.* a quarter, and that the cost of conveyance to Dantzic, including carriage to the river, loading, waste, cost of the barges, and the expenses of the peasants who navigate them, is from 10*s.* to 12*s.* more. The wheat, therefore, is assumed to cost 35*s.* when it reaches the Dantzic merchant. The ordinary price of wheat at Dantzic is 40*s.* per quarter,* on shipboard, which leaves the merchant there 5*s.* per quarter, for his expenses in turning, drying, screening, warehousing, and loading, together with his profit or commission. It is obvious from this that Dantzic wheat cannot be sold in London at a profit much under 47*s.* or 50*s.* During the ten years last past, the average price of Dantzic wheat in London has been nearer to 60*s.* than to 50*s.*

Dantzic prices rule the market prices of corn in the Baltic.

Dantzic being the largest port of exportation of wheat in the North of Europe, the price of corn in that port may be assumed as the governing price at the other shipping ports. The price at Dantzic, it is true, is usually above the price at Hamburg, but the difference is owing to the superior quality of the wheat exported from the former port; the wheats of Holstein and Hanover, which are generally met with in Hamburg, having much less reputation in the British market.

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* The average for fifty years, from 1770 to 1820, was 45*s.* 4*d.*, but this included the years of war, during which there were many obstructions to agriculture and the conveyance of corn. From 1831 to 1841, the average price was 37*s.* 11*d.*, making, with an addition of 10*d.* for shipping charges, &c., 38*s.* 9*d.* free on board. This comes very near the average of 40*s.* generally taken by the best authorities as the price of Dantzic wheat. The advance of price in England in recent years is attributable to our increased demand, as well as to the superiority of Dantzic corn. It is now much used for seed.

Corn granaries in Port of London.

The grain from the Baltic ports comes to London in bulk, and unless sold to the miller direct, ex-ship, is received into the very large granaries on the banks of the Thames, where it continues stored until it changes hands at the Corn Exchange. The dues connected with this trade in the Port of London are complained of by importers; but there is reason to think that if sold ex-ship, the corn trade of the Thames is conducted at as little cost as that of any other port in England. The warehousing charges are certainly higher than those of either Liverpool or Hull; but the London rates are stationary, or nearly so, prices being rarely raised, even in cases of extreme scarcity of space, whilst in most of the outports the rates occasionally vary very much.

Manufacture of sacks for the English millers.

In connexion with the corn trade there is a business carried on in London which ought not to be passed over without mention, as it is the means of affording employment to a very large number of our poorer population. As the corn of the Baltic comes to us in bulk, and as it has to be delivered to the smaller dealers in sacks, it is necessary that sacks should be provided for the purpose. These sacks are principally made up of a strong canvass woven at Dundee, by women residing in the neighbourhood of the granaries, who receive the canvass for the purpose. Latterly, sewing-machines, which are well fitted for this rough sort of work, have been applied to the manufacture. The sacks are not charged for to the purchaser of the corn or meal, but are returnable to the owner when empty; but large numbers never find their way back, and a metropolitan miller calculates on losing at least a fourth of his sacks in every four or five years.

Grain trade of London, 1856—61.

London being so large a purchaser in the grain market, it may be interesting to give in this place the total quantities of foreign and colonial grain imported into London during the last six years:—

YEARS.	WHEAT.	OATS.	BARLEY.	FLOUR.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Sacks and Barrels.
1856	893,911	996,696	212,853	515,802
1857	629,876	1,453,189	586,271	246,272
1858	657,737	1,788,758	602,819	192,323
1859	688,566	1,509,821	518,419	159,005
1860	1,184,241	1,664,683	478,929	560,956
1861	1,438,837	1,529,278	366,996	1,007,577

The quantity of wheat received from the Prussian ports in 1861 was considerably under that of 1860, which is attributable to the circumstance of the United States having in 1861 sent to London the enormous quantity of 563,000 qrs. of wheat—more than a third of the whole quantity imported, and nearly *five times* as much as she sent in the year previous. She also sent no less than 864,000 barrels of flour, more than *twice* as much as we received from her in 1860. The large quantities of oats received in 1861 came mostly from Sweden, and after Sweden, from the ports of Russia in the Baltic and White Sea, and from Denmark. The barley was derived mainly from Russian ports in the Black Sea, and from Egypt, Denmark, and the Prussian ports. A considerable quantity also came from the Turkish dominions.

The Baltic timber trade.

The wood and timber which form so large an item in our imports from the Prussian ports, is almost wholly the produce of Russian Poland. Prussian timber is becoming scarce, and even in Poland the quantity of timber that lies near the Niemen and other rivers, by which it can be floated down to the sea, is becoming comparatively scarce; still, however, a fourth of our whole supply of undressed timber is derived from Dantzic, Memel, and other Prussian ports.* Naturally, the trade in wood and timber is very much distributed through all the ports of the United Kingdom, this article being required in every district. London, however, has the largest proportion of the trade, especially from the Baltic ports. In consequence of a change in the timber duties, which was made by Parliament in 1860, when the duties on foreign and colonial timber were equalized, the trade at the present time is in a transition state, and it is difficult to draw inferences from the accounts of quantities, &c., imported. The first effect of the new arrangement has been to overstock the market. Immediately the timber duties were equalised, large quantities of timber were imported and taken out of bond. At the beginning of 1861, very large stocks were, consequently, collected at all the principal ports of the kingdom. This, however, did not restrict the shipments of wood to England in 1861; on the contrary, increased supplies were sent to us from the countries of production, and the importation of the year exceeded former years by nearly half a million of loads. The trade of the year naturally suffered from the depressing influence of stocks largely in excess of former times, and, as

First effect of our equalization of the Timber Duties.

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* Memel was formerly the great port of timber exportation; but Dantzic, in consequence of the more abundant supply there, is said to be rapidly superseding it. Stettin only exports staves. A very large quantity of the fir timber, received in England from Prussian ports, is for use as railway sleepers. Forests of timber support our iron roads; and, as the process of decay is such that the sleepers require to be renewed every twelve or thirteen years, we may judge of the progress of the trade which must inevitably follow the increase of railways.

timber is an article the demand for which must, to some extent, be regulated by other circumstances than its own price, we must wait the disposal of the stocks on hand, before we can expect to derive any benefit from the opening of the trade in this commodity.

Spelter.

The spelter (or zinc) which forms so considerable an item in the list of Prussian exports, is sent to us chiefly from Stettin. It is the product of Upper Silesia, whence it is conveyed to the port of shipment by internal navigation. Being less brittle than the zinc which is worked in Flintshire and the Isle of Man, it is better fitted for rolling than our own; and being now free from any but a nominal duty, it is brought here to a large extent, as ballast, and is exported by our merchants to India and other countries. It is chiefly used for roofing and piping, and for admixture with other metals in the manufacture of yellow metal and brass.

Our exports to Prussian ports.

Home products.

The principal exports of England to Prussia were :—

Cotton Yarn	valued at	£630,742
Iron	,,	227,190
Herrings	,,	223,866
Coal	,,	155,177
Machinery	,,	73,116
Cotton manufactures	,,	60,545
Oils	,,	51,561
Linen Yarn	,,	50,983
Soda	,,	42,865
Linens, manufactured	,,	42,096
Cement	,,	38,787
Hardware and Cutlery	,,	33,460
Woollen Goods	,,	27,660
Copper	,,	23,367
Woollen Yarn	,,	21,150
Salt	,,	20,846
Tin Plates	,,	19,740
Painter's Colours	,,	11,152
Beer and Ale	,,	8,716
Lead and Shot	,,	7,228
Rosin	,,	7,019
Drugs	,,	5,947

Colonial and foreign produce.

Cotton, raw	valued at	£314,343
Coffee	"	137,990
Tea	"	124,764
Palm Oil	"	107,187
Pepper	"	41,418
Rice	"	33,302
Copper	"	31,886
Guano	"	31,624
Cocoa-Nut Oil	"	29,453
Indigo	"	23,779
Caoutchouc	"	21,462
Hides	"	18,622
Raisins	"	18,541
Rum	"	3,844

Our total exports to Prussian ports amounted to 2,879,446*l.* which shows an increase on preceding years; but this total is far from showing the real condition of our export trade with Prussia, which obtains a very large portion of her imports through Hamburg, Rotterdam, and other ports.

The Zoll-verein.

The efforts of Prussia during the last half century have been exerted in favour of a free commercial system. As far back as 1808, those principles were made the governing commercial principles of Prussia, by the celebrated minister, Von Stein. The Zoll-verein, or tariff alliance, of which Prussia is at the head, extends now over almost every State of Germany, except Austria; and although Austria has not joined the league, she has been induced to enter into a commercial treaty with Prussia, whereby a complete freedom of trade is established between the two countries in all articles of raw produce, and fair and moderate duties are imposed on articles of manufacture. The tariff of the Zoll-verein is moderate, except upon the coarser descriptions of cottons, woollens, and linens, on which high duties are levied, for the purpose, apparently, of protecting the manufactures of Saxony. At the present time negotiations are pending between the Governments of England and Prussia for a reduction of the duties imposed by the Zoll-verein on these and other articles, and there is reason to hope that no long period will elapse before such modifications are made as will materially extend the consumption of British goods throughout the States of Germany.

The Sound-dues.

For many years, trade with the Prussian, and, indeed, with all the Baltic ports, was seriously affected by the dues levied by Denmark on the passage of vessels through the Sound. These dues were of two kinds, namely, the dues levied on merchandise, and those levied on shipping. These dues were levied primarily for the maintenance of lighthouses and buoys in the Sound and Belts; but there were other dues for defraying the expenses of the collection, and for the purposes of the general revenue of Denmark. These Sound-dues were long a subject of complaint by merchants. In 1855, the Government of the United States gave notice to the Government of Denmark of their intention to resist their payment, after the termination of a commercial treaty between those countries, then about to expire. In consequence of this proceeding, the Danish Government invited the other European Powers to a conference at Copenhagen for the purpose of considering whether it might not be possible to abolish the Sound-dues entirely, on the principle of a pecuniary contribution to be granted to Denmark by all maritime States.

The first conference was held in January, 1856, and was attended by representatives of the Governments of Great Britain, Austria, Belgium, France, Holland, Oldenburg, Prussia, Russia, Spain, and Sweden and Norway; the Governments of Hanover, Mecklenburgh, and the Hanse Towns, intimating their intention to attend also. The Danish Commissioner laid before the conference accounts showing the annual amount of dues levied on the shipping of each maritime State in the years 1851, 1852, and 1853, and he announced the readiness of the Danish Government to accept a sum of 35,000,000 rigs dollars, or about three millions and a half sterling, as a compensation for the total abolition of the dues. After some haggling as to the amount, Russia, Sweden, and Oldenburg agreed to accept the offer of Denmark, and an arrangement was arrived at which was made the basis of a general treaty. By this treaty the navigation of the Sound was declared FREE; Denmark ceding her right to detain or levy duty on any ships on any pretext whatsoever. Denmark also engaged to maintain all the lighthouses, buoys, and landmarks on the coast intended to facilitate the passage of the Sound and Belts; and in consideration of these cessions and agreements, the other Governments agreed to pay Denmark a sum of 30,476,325 rigs dollars, in certain proportions equivalent to the trade of each nation, the amount to be paid in forty half-yearly instalments, covering a period of twenty years from the date of the treaty. The share of Great Britain was agreed to be 10,126,853 rigs dollars, or one-third of the whole amount, which the British Parliament agreed to pay.

Redeemed by a pecuniary payment, A.D. 1857.

The free navigation of the Sound cannot fail to be of the greatest importance to British commerce, and it is the more so as the arrangement made with Denmark will no doubt prove a precedent for similar arrangements with other states which levy taxes on merchandise and shipping in the form of passing tolls. Already the most monstrous of these exactions has been put an end to by a similar arrangement. The exaction referred to was that persisted in by the Government of Hanover under the name of "Stade-dues:"—dues which afflicted all the shipping

The Stade-dues.

Their history. navigating the river Elbe. The story of the Stade-dues affects ourselves. In 1715, the King of Denmark, having wrested the City of Stade from Sweden, ceded it to the Elector of Hanover as part of the Duchy of Bremen. The consideration was 750,000*l.*, which the British Government undertook to pay, in furtherance of the war then being carried on against Sweden. Now the City of Stade had for a number of years, and under various Governments, levied certain tolls on all vessels navigating the Elbe. Denmark, having ceded Stade to Hanover, under pecuniary stipulations with England, the Elector of Hanover considered the tolls taken on shipping at Stade, not the property of the country or of his state, but his own private perquisite! A short time after, this Elector came to the crown of England under the title of George I.; and, as the revenues of England and Hanover were always distinct, there was, of course, no inquiry here as to the application of the money. In 1740, George II., in consideration of his obligations to the British people, renounced these tolls altogether as far as they related to British and Irish commerce, "for which bounty his said "majesty received an humble address of thanks from "the British Company of merchant adventurers "trading to Hamburg." George III., however, re-imposed the Stade-dues. Whilst Hanover was occupied by the French, from 1804 to 1814, the Elbe was opened, and the dues were suspended altogether. But, in 1814, when Hanover was restored to George III., the Stade-dues were revived with many aggravations. This state of things continued until the assembling of the Congress of Vienna. That convention declared that "all the German rivers should be free;" but, when the commissioners appointed to re-organize the regulations for the navigation of the Elbe came to consider the question of the

Stade-dues, the Hanoverian representative astonished them by arguing that this was a "*sea*," and not a "river" question, and objecting to any interference. Against Hanover, supported by England, the other states were powerless, and they therefore agreed "to waive and renounce all further discussion." This exaction consequently continued until the separation of the crowns of England and Hanover on the accession of her present majesty Queen Victoria. The dues taken by the Hanoverian guardship at the mouth of the Elbe were most extortionate, and the impediments imposed on trade were most grievous. There appears to have been no published tariff; everything was taken on the ground of "usage." In 1839, Mr. Hume and other members of the British Parliament urged that these dues ought to be abolished. An agitation ensued, and the Government of the King of Hanover was obliged to publish a tariff. The tariff was a very heavy one, and Denmark and other states strongly objected to it. In 1844, a treaty was agreed upon between England and Hanover, which effected a modification of this tariff; but this treaty appears to have been unfortunate, inasmuch as it amounted to a *quasi* admission on the part of England of the legality of these tolls, which certainly otherwise had no legal basis. The fact, no doubt, was, that the influence of the King of Hanover in England was sufficient at that time to obtain this sort of guarantee of his revenue, even at the expense of British commerce. In 1859, a very strong pressure being put upon the British Government, they were forced to refer it to the Law Officers of the Crown, to consider "the legality" of these dues; and in 1861, on the precedent of the arrangement with Denmark, it was agreed that Hanover should renounce the Stade-dues

Agitation against them on the separation of England and Hanover.

The dues "redeemed," A.D. 1861.

altogether, receiving a compensation of about 465,000*l*., one-third to be paid by England, one-third by the city of Hamburg, and the other third by maritime nations, in proportion to the amount of the toll levied on them. On the 15th July, 1861, Parliament accordingly voted 155,000*l*. for the redemption of these dues, and thus got rid of one of the most offensive obstructions that ever existed in the way of commerce.

It must be admitted, that England, which had to pay a third of the whole redemption-money, was properly punished for her conduct in this matter. Had it not been for the position of her royal family in Hanover, these Stade-dues would have been long ago abolished. Nothing could be more monstrous than such an obstruction of the commerce of such a river as the Elbe—a river navigable into the very heart of Germany, and the scene of the export and import of the great bulk of the commerce of the German people. The merchants of Hamburg, who have of course been most injuriously affected by this tax, for years protested and agitated against it, but without avail. The time, however, has now arrived when the Elbe will be as free as the Sound; and flow, it may be hoped, "for all mankind."

Our trade with HAMBURG.

The Stade-dues principally affected HAMBURG. This city, the great entrepôt of the commerce of the North of Germany, has a trade with London unequalled in extent by any other town in Europe. It was computed, some years since, that the mercantile transactions conducted at Hamburg amounted to not less than 50,000,000*l*. annually. Of this vast trade one-half is conducted with England; and the shipping returns show, that by far the largest proportion of the tonnage employed in the Hamburg trade is entered in the Port of London.

Its large extent and value.

In 1860, the trade with Hamburg was represented by the following very large figures :—

Imports therefrom	£6,582,102
Exports thereto	12,415,371

Bremen and Lubeck, the other cities associated with Hamburg in the Hanse Town Confederation, sent us about half a million exports, and received somewhat more than a million imports, making the total of the trade—

Imports	£7,027,406
Exports	13,779,428
Total Trade with the Hanse Towns	£20,806,834

Of which, it will be seen, that the trade of Hamburg amounted to nearly eighteen-twentieths.

Character of this trade.

We have seen, in regard to all the Baltic trade, that the balance has been largely against this country, our imports from Russia, Sweden, Norway, Denmark, and Prussia, exceeding 25,000,000*l*., whilst our exports to those countries little exceeded 10,000,000*l*. But the Hanse Towns take from England double the amount they send to us, thus, to a great extent restoring the balance. The business carried on with those towns is, in fact, to a great extent a commission business for the northern nations. To Russia and Sweden, Hamburg sends considerable quantities of English goods, by steamers from Lubeck and Kiel. By the Elbe, which is navigable for lighters, through the kingdoms of Hanover and Saxony, into the midst of Bohemia, Hamburg obtains access to the heart of Germany; and the lines of railway which now connect Hamburg with all the important towns in the interior of Germany must greatly extend her connexion.

Our imports *via* Hamburg.

Hamburg trades in all the items that the various nations of the world produce or require. The following were her principal exportations to England in 1860.

Corn	valued at	£1,065,351
Wool	,,	869,120
Butter	,,	652,471
Bacon	,,	397,481
Oxen, Cows, and Sheep	,,	307,508
Clover Seeds	,,	264,773
Woollen Manufactures	,,	195,581
Pork (Salted)	,,	192,575
Woollen Yarn	,,	191,651
Spelter	,,	105,271
Hops	,,	97,670
Oil-seed Cake	,,	91,220
Cotton Manufactures	,,	89,202
Lard	,,	76,104
Rags	,,	68,879
Seed Oil	,,	68,716
Musical Instruments (Concertinas, &c.)	,,	60,470
Toys	,,	56,696
Spirits	,,	52,516
Hair (of Animals)	,,	47,217
China and Earthenware	,,	45,558
Worsted Yarn, for Embroidery	,,	40,611
Glass, Flint, Cut	,,	39,824
Bristles	,,	39,614
Hides	,,	35,498
Prints and Drawings	,,	31,285
Beads and Glass Bugles	,,	25,806
Books	,,	24,844
Horns	,,	21,333
Seal Skins	,,	20,956
Bones	,,	20,888
Beef, Salted	,,	17,806

Their varied character.

This list will show how diversified is the trade of Hamburg. It consists of every sort of production of agriculture and manufacture, from bones and seal skins up to prints and drawings and instruments of music. As the exporter of German manufactures, Hamburg, it will be observed, sends us goods to a large amount, of which we are ourselves principal producers. She sends us cotton manufactures to the extent of 89,000*l.*; china and earthenware at 45,500*l.*;

Our importation of German manufactures.

cut glass to the extent of nearly 40,000*l.*, besides articles specially the product of Germany, such as toys (valued at 56,000*l.*), and beads and bugles (valued at 25,800*l.*).* The great bulk of the export consists, however, of agricultural produce. The butter, which presents so large an item in the list, is made chiefly in the district of the Elbe, adjacent to Hamburg; but is generally considered inferior to the butter of Holland, of which, as we shall see hereafter, the supply is even still larger. Bacon, salted pork, and hams, which we also received last year to so large an amount from Hamburg, were subject up to 1846 to a prohibitory duty, and from 1847 to 1852, to a duty that very much restricted the importation. Since 1853, the demand for foreign bacon has increased remarkably, without the smallest reduction of price to the consumer. The quantity imported last year was very largely in excess of any previous year's importation, which is the more remarkable, as the importation of bacon from the United States was also last year extremely large, and it is from the United States that we draw our principal supply of this article. The quantity of books and of prints and drawings imported, shows the taste which has sprung up in England for German literature and art.

Of Agricultural products.

Bacon.

Our exports to Hamburg comprised quantities of almost every article which England produces—articles of clothing standing at the head of the list.

Our exports to Hamburg.

Woollen Yarn	valued at	£1,864,517
Cotton „	„	1,784,736
Woollen Manufactures	„	1,306,648

Home products.

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* Beads and bugles are chiefly imported for the African trade. Of 241,000 lb. imported for transhipment in 1860, 222,000 went to Liverpool. The larger proportion of these, however, did not come from Hamburg, but from Venice, where small wares of glass are largely manufactured. The beads brought here through Hamburg are made in Bohemia.

Cotton Manufactures	valued at	£1,276,768
Linen Yarn	,,	528,868
,, Manufactures	,,	354,895
Silk ,,	,,	397,992
Iron	,,	238,769
Hardwares and Cutlery	,,	188,990
Coals	,,	186,203
Machinery	,,	157,204
Wool	,,	150,592
Skins	,,	98,365
Linseed Oil	,,	84,716
Apparel, Slops, and Haberdashery	,,	81,058
Copper	,,	78,766
Leather	,,	62,103
Horses	,,	55,233
Painters' Colours	,,	48,291
Drugs	,,	39,673
Earthenware and Porcelain	,,	35,256
Soda	,,	34,846
Cement	,,	29,828
Tin Plates	,,	19,574
Stationery	,,	19,166
Herrings	,,	15,572
Brass Manufactures	,,	12,013

Foreign and Colonial produce.

Besides these we sent the following large quantities of foreign and colonial produce.

Raw Cotton	valued at	£843,540
Skins, Beaver, Fox, Marten, &c.	,,	276,101
Indigo	,,	268,601
Hides	,,	213,284
Tea	,,	139,394
Raw and Thrown Silk	,,	106,264
Wool	,,	82,528
Sugar	,,	75,426
Coffee	,,	54,799
Oils, Palm and Cocoa Nut	,,	54,410
Tobacco	,,	45,808
Gum Shellac	,,	44,103
Cochineal	,,	35,840
Raisins	,,	32,837
Caoutchouc	,,	30,296
Guano	,,	28,847
Rice	,,	25,108
Elephants' Teeth	,,	22,150
Wine	,,	22,016
Pepper	,,	17,500
Spirits	,,	18,658
Straw Hats	,,	18,678
Cocoa	,,	9,372
Currants	,,	8,293

Total value. The value of our colonial and transhipment trade is very effectively shown by this account. The total value of the foreign and colonial produce exported from England to Hamburg was close upon 13,000,000*l.*

Docks at Hamburg. Vessels frequenting Hamburg were formerly obliged to load and unload in the Elbe; but this inconvenience has recently been obviated by the construction of docks, in which the ships are brought alongside quays and warehouses. Dependent upon commerce, great efforts are made at Hamburg to conduct it efficiently. **Her commercial system.** The commercial system of the city is liberal: the duties levied on goods few and very low. Hamburg conducts a large trade with Hull; but the tonnage which entered Hull from the Hanseatic ports in 1860 was only 94,341 tons against nearly 150,000 tons for London. More than one-third of the tonnage was that of steamers; showing how extensively such vessels are being employed in our shorter trades.

Our trade with HANOVER. Our trade with HANOVER, on the other side of the Elbe, has been considerably influenced of late years by the Stade dues. Some years since, the King of Hanover, in order to encourage the trade of his own dominions, **Influence of the Stade dues.** remitted the Stade dues on all vessels going up the Elbe to Harburg, a town in Hanover, which set itself up as the opponent of Hamburg. Harburg is not ill-situated for commerce, though, of course, it wants altogether the advantages of the central market presented to the merchant and trader at Hamburg.

Our imports from Hanover in 1860 amounted to 357,000*l.*; our exports to 1,892,722*l.* Corn, butter, oil-seed cake, and wool were the principal imports; whilst the chief exports were—

Exports to Hanover.

Raw Cotton	valued at	£226,291
Woollen Yarn	„	189,655
Coffee	„	171,581
Cotton Yarn	„	157,538
Herrings	„	106,594
Woollen Goods	„	100,473
Machinery	„	94,326
Cotton Goods	„	84,781
Linseed Oil	„	81,409
Iron	„	47,844
Linen Yarn	„	42,098
Cocoa Nut Oil	„	39,455
Indigo	„	37,760
Cochineal	„	33,668
Coals	„	30,274
Wool, Foreign	„	23,828
Silk Manufactures	„	23,232
Linen „	„	22,642
Caoutchouc	„	19,417
Hardwares	„	13,301
Agricultural Implements	„	11,336
Molasses	„	12,482

This is a fair record of trade, and now that the Stade question is settled, it may be expected that the trade of Hanover will increase if a liberal policy is pursued with regard to the navigation of the Elbe above Hamburg; for the railway route through Hanover on the west side of the Elbe is, to many parts of the interior of Germany, shorter and more convenient than that of the right bank or east side of the river, by which Hamburg communicates with the interior.

Our trade with HOLLAND.

Causes of the decline of the commerce of the Dutch.

In treating of our trade with HOLLAND, it is not unnatural to be tempted to a consideration of the causes of the decline of that once great commercial country. This subject has been the theme of many dissertations, but the real solution of the question appears to lie in a comparatively narrow compass. Holland attained her great commercial consequence at a period of European history when other countries were engaged in external or internal warfare. Her geographical position then rendered her towns the

The burden of taxation laid on her commerce, causing it to pass to places at which it could be carried on at less cost.

entrepôts of commerce, whilst her shipping and the commercial aptitude of her people made her the carrier of Europe. But the time came when the Dutch themselves were forced to engage in warfare. Their long and frequently disastrous wars crippled their maritime power, both naval and commercial, and this, together with the other expenses of their wars, led to heavy taxation. Holland, having no manufactures or extraordinary natural productions, was compelled to lay the burden of such taxation on that which was the sole source of her wealth—namely, on her commerce. For a time the other nations of Europe had no resource but to bear the taxation thus imposed on the articles which they procured from Holland. But, as other countries, which were not subject to such burdens, began to develop commerce, trade naturally passed away from the dearest to the cheapest markets. Holland, which was unable sufficiently to reduce her taxation to meet the competition, rapidly succumbed. Her own merchants (as, for instance, the Hopes of Amsterdam) carried their capitals to develop trade in other countries, where it could be carried on to greater advantage; and Holland was left, what she remains, a depôt only for the trade of the Rhine, and other rivers which reach the sea in her dominions.

Our imports from Holland.

Our own imports from Holland amount to about eight millions a year. We import

Butter	valued, in 1860, at	£1,633,489
Cheese	„	996,910
Animals	„	935,120
Flax	„	458,796
Sugar	„	414,257
Wool	„	376,056
Wine	„	256,871
Garancine	„	183,739
Yeast, Dried	„	174,399
Hides	„	133,535
Cotton Manufactures	„	122,865

Seeds	valued, in 1860, at	£119,855
Fish	,,	100,603
Tobacco	,,	84,085
Geneva Spirits	,,	75,425
Oil-seed	,,	73,292
Ultramarine	,,	72,685
Tin	,,	68,632
Woollen Manufactures	,,	63,328
Cotton Yarn	,,	51,705
Hops	,,	50,735
Silk Manufactures	,,	47,476
Manganese	,,	43,808
Madder	,,	37,410
Spelter	,,	35,776
Wood Hoops	,,	35,685
Potatoes	,,	21,443
Bark (for Tanners' use)	,,	20,533
Clocks	,,	16,298
Bones	,,	14,100

Butter and cheese.

It will be seen that the principal items of this importation are Dutch productions. Holland sends us from two-thirds to three-fourths of all the butter we import. The Dutch butter is the best produced, perhaps, by any country; but the cheese is very inferior, according to the rule which prevails in almost all butter-producing districts. The Dutch cheeses, however, keep well, and are consequently good commodities for exportation, and being cheap, they are much used amongst the poorer class.

Wine.

Garancine and madder.

Eels.

The wine we obtain through Holland is the growth of the Rhine and the Moselle. The quantity imported last year in consequence of the reduction of the wine duties was double that of years preceding. The madder and garancine (which is madder in a powdered state) is the production of Zealand. This commodity is used to obtain a red dye, which is cheaper, though not so bright as cochineal. The Zealand madder is largely used by our woollen dyers; but Holland sends us less of this commodity than Turkey, France, or the Two Sicilies. Of the fish imported, one-fourth (or 26,820*l.* in value) were eels, which are extremely abundant in the canals throughout Holland, and especially in Jutland. They are brought here in cargoes averaging from 15,000 to 20,000 lb. weight, the trade being carried on entirely by the Dutch, who employ in it many small vessels. London is almost exclusively supplied with Dutch eels. The other fish brought to us from Holland are chiefly turbot, which excel upon their coast, salmon, of great size, but by some considered coarse, and smelts, which are, however, inferior to those of the Medway. The large sum of money which the Dutch receive in the London market for turbot, salmon, and eels, illustrates the importance of their fishery.

Fish.

The spirits introduced from Holland under the name of "Hollands" or Geneva (*Genièvre*, the French term for juniper) are chiefly the manufacture of the distilleries of Schiedam. Of the quantity imported, the larger proportion is reshipped, chiefly to the East Indies. The manganese we receive through Holland is brought down the Rhine from the Grand Duchy of Nassau, and is largely used by the glass and earthenware manufacturers of this country for glazing their goods.

Spirits.

Manganese.

The "Dutch clocks," as they used to be called, were at one time great favourites in small households, but the Americans have recently sent a better article at low prices, and the French a very superior article at a somewhat higher value, so that the Dutch clocks are competed with and comparatively driven out of the market here. It is interesting to notice that we are importers of potatoes from Holland. They are chiefly new potatoes, brought here in the early season.

Clocks.

Potatoes.

Our principal exports to Holland (1860) were—

Exports to Holland.

Cotton Yarn	valued at	£2,023,034
Woollen „	„	705,036
Cotton Manufactures	„	704,347
Woollen „	„	417,306

Iron	valued at	£399,763
Silk, Thrown and Yarn	,,	195,798
Copper	,,	171,660
Linen Yarn	,,	167,744
Oil, Linseed	,,	160,869
Coals	,,	130,575
Leather	,,	110,967
Machinery	,,	110,956
Hardwares and Cutlery	,,	79,278
Silk Manufactures	,,	74,531
Linen ,,	,,	61,163
Apparel, Slops and Haberdashery	,,	59,970
Soda	,,	59,006
Hemp	,,	33,881
Drugs, &c.	,,	25,194
Painters' Colours	,,	21,371
Earthenware and Porcelain	,,	20,986
Tin Plates	,,	15,871
Wool	,,	11,287
Salt	,,	10,286
Mill Grease	,,	7,461

Foreign and Colonial produce.

Besides these we sent of colonial and foreign produce the following amounts:—

Raw Cotton	valued at	£1,023,787
Coffee	,,	395,429
Silk, Raw and Thrown	,,	388,509
Indigo	,,	320,803
Palm Oil	,,	202,664
Hides	,,	150,951
Seeds	,,	148,700
Rice	,,	110,941
Cocoa Nut Oil	,,	106,493
Peruvian Bark	,,	72,967
Wool	,,	67,825
Currants	,,	37,550
Tobacco	,,	27,906
Tea	,,	25,803
Raisins	,,	23,232
Pepper	,,	15,836
Cochineal	,,	14,763
Guano	,,	12,724

And other articles to the value of nearly half a million. Our total exports to Holland in 1860 fell little short of TEN MILLIONS.

The English the carriers for the Dutch.

The foregoing tables show to how large an extent we are not only manufacturers, but carriers for the Dutch. We not only supply them, as it will be observed, with almost all the articles we produce ourselves, but we bring them from almost every quarter of the globe the produce of other countries, cotton, indigo, silk, palm oil, rice, Peruvian bark, currants and raisins, tea, coffee and tobacco, pepper, cochineal, and even guano.

Proportion of British and foreign shipping in this trade.

Our intercourse with Holland is carried on principally in our own vessels; the total tonnage trading with Holland in 1860 being 814,000, of which 529,000 was British, and 285,000 foreign. The Dutch, it should be mentioned, are carrying on their intercourse with us largely by steam ships, which are said to be built at Rotterdam and Amsterdam, as successfully as on the Thames or the Clyde. Of 867 vessels entered inwards in the Port of London in 1860 from Holland, 586 were steamers. The largest number of course belonged to our own country, but the Dutch steamers are very numerous.

Our trade with BELGIUM.

It is somewhat curious that whilst the trade of England with Holland has been for many years past a largely increasing trade, that with BELGIUM, which England did so much to render an independent state, has been a stagnant, if not an absolutely declining traffic. This is attributable to two causes; first, the Scheldt dues, whereby the commerce of Antwerp, the chief port of Belgium, has been much prejudiced; second, the proximity of Belgium to France, and the general sympathy of the two people, who, to a great extent, speak the same language, are of the same religion, and cultivate the like fashions and domestic habits. To all this it must be added that the Belgian Chambers have evinced in commercial matters a very narrow spirit, as, indeed, they have exhibited in many other matters of public policy. Their feeling has been in favour of a protectionist policy, and they have at various times imposed differential duties of various

Causes of its inferiority.

sorts, the tendency of which has been to favour French in preference to British goods. Thus it has occurred that a kingdom governed, it may be said, by an English sovereign (for King Leopold is a naturalized Englishman), bound to this country by the strongest ties of gratitude and interest, and drawing from it vast sums of money annually, both from commerce and intercourse, stands in less immediate mercantile correspondence with England than any country of northern Europe.

Lord Palmerston's statement respecting our trade with Belgium.

It may be hoped, however, that this state of things will speedily be changed.* In the early part of the month of February, 1862, Lord Palmerston, in answer to questions propounded to him in the House of Commons, made the following important statement, which throws much light on our past and present relations with Belgium:—

> "Negotiations are now going on between her Majesty's government and Belgium, which are being conducted in the most amicable spirit, and which I trust will terminate in a treaty that will give to Great Britain a footing of the most favoured nation with regard to commerce with Belgium, unaccompanied by any conditions with regard to the other questions, such as that of the capitalization of the dues of the Scheldt.
>
> "England bore a very prominent part in the negotiations which resulted in the independence of the Belgian nation; and therefore if the Belgian government were to form an exception to all national character, and to be inspired actively by a sense of gratitude—which I am afraid is not to be expected from collective bodies—they ought to have been anxious to give to England every advantage that it was possible for them to afford, equal to or even superior to those possessed by any other country. Our great object was to give to Belgium a national representation—a free constitution. Now, if you give to a country a free constitution, by which the passions and the prejudices of the

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* It is stated that the Protectionist party in Belgium is declining in influence, and that Verviers, Liege, and other great seats of industry, are in favour of free trade, Ghent alone remaining protectionist.

country are actively represented, you must make up your mind to endure the inconvenience which national and local prejudices and passions are sure to entail. That has been the case, not in Belgium alone, but in Portugal and Spain, where, greatly through the influence of the British government, representative institutions have been established. Now, we, in this country, were a long time before we were brought to understand that freedom of trade was to the advantage of all parties concerned. Luckily we are now undeceived on that point; but Belgium has not, as yet, got so far in political education. The Belgian government has to overcome great local prejudices, and the Belgians do us the compliment—for compliment it is—of being much more afraid of the competition of English industry than of French industry. Therefore they were more easily led to agree to extend to France indulgences which they were not disposed equally to extend to England. I trust, however, that that is over, and by the treaty which is to be concluded that we shall be put in all respects upon the footing of the French nation.

"Then there is the question of the Scheldt dues. When the treaty was negotiated by which the independence of Belgium was acknowledged by the five Powers, it was known that Austria, Russia, and Prussia most reluctantly agreed to the conclusion, and that they clung, step by step, and point by point, throughout the long and arduous negotiation, to everything that might be advantageous to Holland rather than to Belgium; and they made a point that there should be levied a toll on vessels passing through the Dutch waters to Antwerp. There was a double object in that—first, to assert the territorial rights of Holland, and next to put a check upon the commercial prospects of Belgium. That toll was to be levied by the Dutch authorities stopping all vessels at Carlhuis. It was afterwards agreed between the Belgian and Dutch governments that the toll should not be levied at Carlhuis, that the vessels should not be stopped, but that there should be a commissioner appointed at Antwerp to levy tolls on vessels coming up the Scheldt. The Belgian government afterwards, sensible that those tolls would operate as a discouragement to vessels coming to Antwerp, the commerce of which they were desirous of encouraging, passed a law by which the Belgian government took upon itself the payment of the toll to the Dutch. That was an engagement liable, of course, to be revoked at any time by the Belgian Chamber, and in that event tolls would be levied in the old way. The Belgian government in 1851, I think, made a treaty by which they agreed for ten years to pay the toll upon British vessels; and it will be matter of negotiation after the treaty of commerce is concluded, to deal with the question as between Belgium and Great Britain.

"The Belgian government have acted throughout with the greatest desire to do all that fairness, gratitude, and justice would require. As they have, however, to deal with a popular assembly, which represents, as all popular assemblies do, the passions and prejudices of the nation represented, they have had difficulties to encounter which would not have been felt in countries of a more despotic constitution."

Our imports from Belgium.

The imports of Great Britain from Belgium amounted in 1860 to 4,070,866*l.*, and included the following items :—

Silk, Stuffs, and Ribbons	valued at	£655,010
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	,,	472,362
Flax	,,	437,938
Butter	,,	407,686
Worsted Yarn	,,	202,108
Sugar, Refined	,,	178,816
Glass, Window, Plate, and Flint	,,	139,124
Hops	,,	99,060
Spelter	,,	86,440
Oil-seed Cake	,,	71,896
Paper	,,	71,176
Woollen Manufactures	,,	70,033
Corn	,,	62,571
Apples	,,	60,328
Cotton Yarn	,,	55,723
Bark	,,	50,900
Seed Oil	,,	43,994
Cotton Manufactures	,,	42,705
Poultry and Game	,,	40,270
Clover Seed	,,	36,714
Eggs	,,	34,144
Lace	,,	28,049
Chicory	,,	26,693
Horses	,,	21,690
Potatoes	,,	14,442
Calves	,,	12,518
Hides	,,	12,004
Embroidery and Needlework	,,	10,239

In this list the balance is tolerably equal between agricultural produce and manufactured articles. The silk manufactured goods which stand at the head of the list, are principally the production of Antwerp, which city is remarkable for its manufacture of rich black silks and ribbons. It is curious to observe that we are large importers of wool, and large exporters of woollen goods to Flanders; how great a change from a few centuries ago, when almost the sole export of England was wool to supply the manufactories of Ghent and Bruges. The flax which we receive from Belgium is chiefly grown in the province of West Flanders, and is of the finest quality. Our importation of this article has lately been largely increasing, whilst that of lace from Brussels, Mechlin, &c., has been almost stationary, which says more for our progress in manufacturing industry than for the wisdom of the Belgian tariff. The trade in what is termed Ostend butter is also largely increasing. It comes to us well packed in oaken cases, and is consumed in considerable quantities in London. Concerning articles of inferior amount, attention may be pointed to hops, which are now being largely imported from Belgium for use in our porter breweries, especially in bad hop years at home; to paper, which came in largely from Belgium on the repeal of the customs duty on foreign paper in 1860; to apples, for which we paid 60,000*l.* to Belgium in the year 1860 (a bad apple year in our own orchards); to poultry and game, of which the larger proportion consists of rabbits, bred on the Dunes about Ostend, and of which nearly a million a year are said to be consumed in London—they are skinned in Belgium, and sold here at reasonable prices; and to horses, of which it is to be regretted that we do not import a larger number, the breed of this animal in Flanders being still of great superiority.

Silk goods.
Wool.
Flax.
Lace.
Butter.
Hops.
Paper.
Apples.
Poultry and Game.
Horses.

Our exports to Belgium.

Our exports to Belgium consist less of our own manufactures than of colonial and foreign produce. We sent them in 1860—

Produce and Manufactures of the United Kingdom	£1,610,144
Foreign and Colonial Produce	2,354,526
Total Exports	£3,964,670

Home manufactures.

The principal articles of home manufacture were—

Woollen Goods	valued at	£219,458
,, Yarn	,,	175,111
Cotton Goods	,,	128,009
Machinery	,,	116,427
Copper	,,	98,431
Iron	,,	98,154
Linen Yarn	,,	74,812
Hardwares and Cutlery	,,	55,169
Wool	,,	56,486
Silk, Thrown and Yarn	,,	54,272
Leather	,,	45,780
Cotton Yarn	,,	40,552
Silk Manufactures	,,	38,953
Apparel, Slops, &c.	,,	24,300
Linens	,,	23,493
Coals, &c.	,,	20,475
Soda	,,	18,218
Oysters	,,	18,104
Linseed Oil	,,	17,315
Caoutchouc Manufactures	,,	10,032
Drugs	,,	9,427
Painters' Colours	,,	9,119
Stationery	,,	4,818

It must be admitted that this is a very poor list of exports to so rich and populous a country, and such a highway of nations. It is the more so when it is considered that a proportion of these goods are received in Belgium for transport, and not for consumption. The quantities of colonial and foreign produce taken are more respectable :—

Foreign goods.

Wool	valued at	£600,597
Cotton (Raw)	,,	390,959
Indigo	,,	205,507
Hides	,,	160,599
Seeds (Flax, Rape, &c.)	,,	150,356
Coffee	,,	131,109

Rice	valued at	£120,443
Silk	,,	90,938
Manufactures of Goats' Hair	,,	82,131
Guano	,,	43,146
Tobacco	,,	20,136
Sugar	,,	15,818
Cochineal	,,	11,579
Copper	,,	9,997
Cocoa	,,	8,452
Indigo	,,	6,777
Wheat	,,	5,489
Tallow	,,	4,159
Tea	,,	3,466

Our trade with FRANCE.

Passing from Belgium, we come to consider the state of our trade with FRANCE, a country with which, under our new commercial arrangements, there appears a prospect of our speedily doing an immense trade.

Its progress.

Our trade with France has been rising in the following progression since 1856:—

TRADE WITH FRANCE.

YEAR.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1855	£9,146,418	£10,421,881
1856	10,386,522	10,471,077
1857	11,965,407	11,326,823
1858	13,271,890	9,242,201
1859	16,870,859	9,561,956
1860	17,774,031	12,701,372
1861	(not yet ascertained.)	

Recent development of French commerce.

Whilst our imports from France show a steady increase, our exports to that country were, as the above table shows, stationary and even languishing, up to the period of the commercial treaty negotiated by Mr. Cobden at the end of 1859. Yet of all countries next to England, France has, perhaps, during the last twenty years developed commerce the most largely. The decimal average shows that the total aggregate value of her imports and exports were—

In the ten years ending	1836	1,366	million francs a year.
,, ,,	1846	2,112	,,
,, ,,	1856	3,136	,,

The last decimal average showing an annual trade, amounting in 1856 to 125,000,000*l.*—that of England, at the same period, amounting to 311,000,000*l.*

Commercial policy of the French considered.

In the historic section of this work, the difficulties which we have from time to time set up against trade with our nearest neighbour have been touched on. It is right, however, to observe that these difficulties were not greater than the difficulties interposed by the French to trade with other nations. The policy of France up to the present time has been essentially Protectionist, and she has suffered from it. To no country, indeed, could such a policy have been more injurious. France stands unrivalled in a single product, which she must export; but of which she has limited the amount of her export by laying duties on the productions of other nations for the protection or cultivation of manufactures in which she does not herself excel. France employs 3,000,000 of people in her wine culture; yet she has prevented the free exportation of their produce, in order to protect the limited number of hands which she can employ in the manufacture of iron or of cotton goods. The perpetuation of this system has no doubt led to many of those periodically recurring depressions in France which have resulted in outbreaks ending, frequently, in revolution.

The Cobden treaty.

Happily, for both France and England, this unnatural state of things has been terminated by the Cobden Treaty, which, since October, 1861, has opened the trade of each country to the other. Of this treaty, of which England is just beginning to reap the benefit, the Right Hon. W. E. Gladstone, Chancellor of the Exchequer, spoke at Leith, in January last, in the following emphatic language:—

Mr. Gladstone's statements respecting it.

> "I think it very peculiarly desirable, on many grounds, that this improvement in our commercial relations should take place

between England and France. It is true the old state of things in the commercial law between this country and France savoured of the period when it was almost thought a matter of duty to regard Frenchmen as traditional enemies. That opinion does not, I am happy to say, prevail now. The truth is, that the union of England and France in the bonds of special amity and harmony is, of all other things that can be named, the greatest benefit both to these countries themselves and to the other nations of the world. It is a benefit which we cannot always enjoy, because it is impossible that the views and the policy of Governments and of nations should always coincide; but it is a benefit with respect to which I presume to say, that when we can have it we should have it, for there is none other comparable to it in magnitude—there is none other which so completely offers us, humanly speaking, a guarantee for the general peace and happiness of the world. The policy of Governments as opposed to nations may sometimes interfere to mar that harmony. Therefore it was well that we should not look simply to the policy of Governments, but that we should endeavour to unite the two nations in harmonious feelings. When was there any means or instrument so powerful and so valuable for that purpose at our command as the means and instrument employed in the treaty of commerce with France, which increases and multiplies tenfold the quiet, peaceful, unnoticed, and beneficial intercourse between the two countries?"

Its probable results

The new commercial treaty having only come into operation in England in 1860, and in France towards the close of 1861, it is impossible, at the time this is written, to do more than anticipate many of the advantages which must ultimately result from it. The experience we have already had of the operation of the treaty is certainly most favourable. The first reduction in the duty on wine came into operation in 1860, and the importation immediately more than doubled itself.

FRENCH WINE IMPORTED.

	GALLONS.	VALUE.
1858	623,041	£383,100
1859	1,010,888	559,304
1860	2,445,151	1,036,620

The returns for 1861 are not yet complete, but sufficient of them is known to show that the increase was maintained. Large as it is, this increase, as Mr. Gladstone said at Leith, does not anything like represent the quantity of French wine which we shall import when the new tariff comes fully into operation in France. The French Government, in order to meet the views of the strong Protectionist influence which still prevails in France, wisely allowed a certain period to elapse before bringing the free-trade treaty into full operation. It was only on the 1st of October, 1861, that the most important changes were made, and even the reductions which then came into operation were not final. But such was the immediate effect upon commerce, that, although the reductions under the Treaty were only partially in operation for three months of 1861, our exports to France of the productions and manufactures of the United Kingdom sprung up in 1861 from 5,249,980*l.* to 8,896,282*l.*; indeed, in the last three months of the year, the increase exceeded cent. per cent.

when in full operation.

But, as before remarked, this is probably only an indication of what will be the ultimate effects of the Cobden Treaty. Mr. Gladstone truly observed, that "neither the laws, the necessities, nor the palates of men change in a moment." It cannot be doubted that the taste for French wines is a rapidly growing taste in this country amongst almost all classes of the population; and that now we are able to purchase those wines in England almost as cheaply as in Paris, their consumption will soon exhibit a large and rapid increase. The admission of our products at low rates of duty into France will, of course, stimulate the growth of French wines, and their exportation at rates which will allow also of their more universal consumption; and thus the opening of commerce, so long virtually closed between the two countries, may be expected in a very few years to result largely in the benefit of both nations.

Objections to the French treaty considered.

It has been objected to the French Treaty that, so far as England was concerned, it only reduced duties levied on articles of luxury, which were fairly subject to taxation. But this is a very narrow and unphilosophical view of the case, for there can be no object in maintaining taxation on articles of luxury but to raise revenue, and all taxation that obstructs trade must be prejudicial to revenue as well as prejudicial to trade. We shall no doubt find, when the full effects of the French Treaty come to be developed, that the reduction of the duties on foreign wines will involve no loss whatever to the revenue. At present, the loss has been much less than might have been anticipated. The amount received by the Customs for duty upon foreign wines was—

The loss upon the Custom's duties on wine

In 1859	£1,982,327
1860	1,174,105
1861	1,219,533

So that the entire loss in 1861 was only about 750,000*l.*, as compared with 1859, when the high rates of duty prevailed. In that year the whole amount of the duties received on French articles amounted to only 3,327,000*l.* Our gross Customs duties amounted

In 1859 to	£25,065,066
1861 to	23,657,513
Decrease	1,407,553

of which a considerable proportion is due to the interruption of our commerce with America. But supposing the entire million and a half to have been sacrificed by the Treaty with France, have there been more than counterbalanced

by the extension of trade.

no advantages which have counterbalanced this loss? As already shown, the export trade of England in 1861 was absolutely maintained by our increased and increasing exports to France, and that at the time of all others when we most needed it, because of the great decline of our export trade to the United States. Whilst our total exports to France in 1859 were represented by 9,561,000*l.*, the total in 1861 amounted to little less than 17,000,000*l.*, an additional export of seven millions and a half to counterbalance a loss of revenue of one million and a half. When we consider the employment which this additional trade must have given to British manufactures and produce, as well as to the British merchant and shipowner, who can doubt that the policy of the commercial treaty was right, even though it did reduce the duties chiefly upon articles of luxury?

Our imports from, and exports to, FRANCE.

The list of our French imports and exports in 1860 is a long but not an uninteresting one:—

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Corn of all sorts	£3,899,298	Wool	£573,091
Silk, Stuffs, and Ribbons .	1,907,930	Coals	564,243
Spirits	1,058,379	Copper	548,072
Wine	1,036,620	Iron	370,381
Raw Silk*	833,268	Silk, Thrown and Yarn . .	353,578
Sugar	786,927	Linseed Oil	342,021
Gloves	566,069	Woollen Manufactures . .	293,639
Butter	441,641	Cotton ,, . .	248,261
Eggs	399,648	Woollen Yarn	233,828
Cotton Manufactures . . .	384,251	Machinery	171,020
Watches*	334,825	Hardwares and Cutlery . .	118,265
Seeds	308,200	Tin, unwrought	115,123
Silks, unenumerated . . .	277,826	Horses	94,740
Straw Plaiting and Chip .	182,530	Telegraphic Wires . . .	75,461
Oil-Seed Cake	165,667	Linen Yarn	70,620
Rape Seed	140,933	Linen Manufactures . . .	63,582
Boots and Boot Fronts . .	139,013	Silk ,, . . .	60,124

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* These are chiefly the productions of Italy and Switzerland, sent through France to the British merchant.

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT
Hides	£136,121
Oxen, Cows, and Horses	136,111
Clocks	136,387
Artificial Flowers	113,388
Cream of Tartar	105,202
Madder and Madder Root	92,210
Silk Plush for making Hats	90,674
Wool	89,734
Flax	87,405
Potatoes	74,527
Embroidery and Needlework	63,770
Raw Cotton	62,562
Tallow	60,642
Garancine	54,768
China and Porcelain	49,805
Harmoniums and Seraphines	48,624
Straw Bonnets and Hats	46,917
Kid Skins, dressed	44,087
Books	31,392
Asphaltum and Bitumen	28,150
Prints and Drawings	27,393
Lace	24,487
Cambrics and French Lawns	20,928
Apples	20,339
Salted Pork	14,663
Paper Hangings	13,797
Manufactures of Caoutchouc	4,956
Worsted Yarn, not dyed	4,779
Machinery, Tools, & Cutlery	2,962
Fancy Ornaments of Iron	1,094

EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Cotton Yarn	£50,459
Spirits	49,610
Apparel, Slops, &c.	44,418
Tin Plates	36,076
Painters' Colours	34,082
Cement	32,979
Lead and Shot	24,197
Caoutchouc Manufactures	18,472
Saltpetre	17,761
Drugs	16,263
Raw and Thrown Silk	3,328,476
Wool	1,176,370
Seeds	399,107
Flax	306,610
Indigo	223,463
Copper	211,054
Hair, Manufactures of	137,974
Coffee	130,360
Rice	126,331
Oils—Cocoa Nut, Palm, Seed	121,909
Hides	115,661
Wine	101,396
Elephants' Teeth	52,768
Peruvian Bark	50,922
Caoutchouc	47,287
Sponge	41,337
Tin	36,452
Rum and other Spirits	27,308
Quicksilver	23,936
Cocoa	20,217
Silks of India	16,227
Raisins	15,603
Cochineal	13,154

Character of our imports from France.

This list will show the very general character of our imports from France, with which country our trade, now that restrictions on both sides are removed, will, no doubt, hereafter partake largely of the character of an exchange of commodities according to the variations of fashion and the requirements of the period in either country. For example, in 1860 we were large importers of corn from France, our own harvest being deficient; but in 1861 we were exporters of corn to

Rapid increase in the importation of silks, gloves, boots, &c.

our neighbours, their harvest having been greatly below the average. In the superior articles of dress, which the French know so well how to manufacture—such as silk stuffs and ribbons, gloves, boots, artificial flowers—it is curious to see how largely our receipts from France have increased under the new tariff. The imports in successive years have been

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Silk Stuffs and Ribbons	£1,151,871	£1,372,065	£1,909,930
Kid Gloves	359,174	487,775	566,069
Silk Manufactures, unenumerated	204,993	240,770	277,826
Boots, &c.	111,215	111,002	139,013
Plaiting of Straw, Chip, &c.	105,785	125,192	182,530
Artificial Flowers	103,677	97,273	113,388

Dairy produce.

The importation of certain descriptions of dairy produce has increased in the same way: as, for example,

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Butter	£97,997	£152,480	£441,641
Eggs	268,942	293,588	399,648

Clocks and watches.

And we have a like increase in clocks and watches, though the last-mentioned of these are less the manufacture of France than of Switzerland.

	1858.	1859.	1860.
Clocks	£76,549	£90,226	£136,387
Watches	208,125	210,738	334,825

But enough has been said to show the effect of the new tariff on our imports from France, from whence we have now the opportunity of acquiring many articles of which the supply is extremely valuable to us, at rates which were quite unknown to our forefathers.

Of the results of the new state of things on the other side, it is to be regretted that it is impossible to speak with the same particularity, the tariff having only come into operation in France late in

1861, and the tables of exports for that year not being yet published. Of the general result we are apprised, and the very large increase in the exportation of our home productions and manufactures has been already observed upon; but the details of that increase are, unfortunately, not before us.

Our exports to France of foreign and colonial produce and manufactures amounted in 1860 to nearly seven millions and a half, which shows the extent to which England is doing the carrying trade of the neighbouring country. The fact is, that the mercantile marine of France of late years has scarcely increased at all; and that at the present time the greater part of the commerce of the French is done in English and American bottoms. On the 1st January, 1858, the whole French mercantile marine only consisted of

The French mercantile marine.

	14,845	Sailing Ships, of the burden of	980,465	Tons.
	3,330	Steamers ,,	72,870	,,
Total . .	18,175	Vessels of	1,053,335	,,

Whilst England has

	36,164	Sailing Ships, of the burden of	5,210,824	Tons.
	2,337	Steamers ,,	500,144	,,
Total . .	38,501	Vessels of	5,710,968	,,

Trade with France through Southampton and Folkestone.

The trade of England with France nearly all concentrates itself in London. But, as has been already stated, a very considerable proportion of the imports and exports takes place at Southampton and Folkestone, to which ports goods are sent from London and received by railway. Nearly all the eggs imported from France come through the former port, and nearly all the silk goods through the latter.

The trade with France is chiefly conducted in our own vessels. Of the total tonnage entered inwards

British and foreign shipping employed in the French trade.

in 1860, amounting to 737,000 tons, 529,000 was British and 208,000 foreign. This proportion is much greater in the London trade, only 22,000 being foreign, whilst 154,000 was British tonnage. Nearly the whole of the latter tonnage was in steam shipping, in which form nearly all the intercourse between the Channel ports is also conducted, only bulky articles, such as coal, iron, copper, &c., being now sent to France in sailing vessels. It should be observed, however, that before the repeal of the duties, the wine trade between London and Bordeaux was conducted in small vessels, brigantines and schooners, belonging to a few owners, and permanently engaged in this trade, of which they may be said to have had a sort of monopoly. This state of things will, of course, be altogether changed with the opening of the wine trade, and the importation of large quantities of wines from shippers not previously engaged in the English trade.

Our trade with PORTUGAL.

The Methuen Treaty, which for a century and a half has been so prejudicial to English commerce with France, was intended to open up to us immense advantages in connexion with "our ancient ally," PORTUGAL. To suppose that a trade, with a country containing only 4,000,000 inhabitants, could compensate us for the loss of our trade with a country containing nearly 40,000,000, was against all the principles of common sense.

The Methuen Treaty of A.D. 1733.

Its object and results.

The object of the Methuen Treaty was to introduce our woollens into the limited market of Portugal, from which they happened at the time to be excluded. The extent to which the object was accomplished is shown by the fact that our export of woollens to Portugal in 1860 was to the value of less than 125,000*l.* Our whole export to Portugal amounted in 1860 to little more than two millions, and this was nearly an eighth above the average. To secure a trade with a poor country, which, in a century and a half, has only developed itself to the extent of two millions, we may be said to have sacrificed not merely our commerce with France, but all that large proportion of our national debt which has arisen from our wars with that great country.

"Port" wine.

The only article of great account which the Portuguese had to send us in return for our woollens was their wine, shipped at Porto or Oporto, and consequently known to us by the name of "Port." It has been of no small advantage to Portugal to find a customer for this wine in so rich a nation as ours—the more so as no other people have shown themselves inclined to be drinkers of it. Of an average of 35,000 pipes of port wine shipped at Oporto, from 1851 to 1858, 27,000 pipes came to the United Kingdom, whilst only 2,000 went to any other European country, and only 6,000 elsewhere.* England, therefore, may be said to be almost the sole customer of Portugal.

Our imports from Portugal.

Our imports from Portugal in 1860 amounted, in the whole, to 1,882,293*l.* This includes not only the imports from Portugal proper, but from Madeira, the Azores, the Canary and the Cape de Verd Islands. The principal articles imported were—

Wine	valued at	£898,336
Wool	,,	230,124
Cork	,,	129,696
Oranges and Lemons	,,	113,886
Oils—Olive, Palm, and Seed	,,	113,166
Oxen	,,	82,674
Elephants' Teeth	,,	33,847
Orchil	,,	29,938
Corn (chiefly Indian Corn)	,,	20,891
Onions	,,	20,616
Figs	,,	13,627
Potatoes	,,	12,551

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* Chiefly to Brazil.

Copper Ore	valued at	£15,285
Argol	„	8,756
Cream of Tartar	„	6,910
Lead	„	5,005
Hides	„	4,589
Spirits	„	3,707
Salt	„	3,413
Corks, ready-made	„	1,987
Grapes	„	1,368
Chesnuts	„	1,245

Argol. "Argol" and "Cream of Tartar" are the same articles, the latter being argol purified. Argol is produced in wine countries by the deposit of a crust on the sides of the vessels in which wine has been kept. It is much used by dyers to dispose the stuffs to receive their colours. Orchil. The orchil, of which we obtain a large quantity from Madeira, the Canary and the Cape de Verd Islands, is a sea-lichen yielding a beautiful purple tincture, also used by dyers. It is found on our own coasts, especially on the Isle of Portland; but the Madeira and Canary Islands' orchils are the most esteemed, and fetch occasionally an exceedingly high price. At periods of scarcity, orchil has been known to be sold as high as 1,000*l.* a ton; but it is probable that the progress of chemical science will find a substitute for this colour, as it has for others. Cork. The condition of our trade affords us facilities for the admission of cork from Portugal; but although we obtain it in large quantities, it is not so much esteemed as Spanish cork. Oxen. The number of animals we import from Portugal has been increasing for several years. They principally come to Southampton in steam vessels, and are sent to the London market; but although very fine beasts, they are frequently much deteriorated by the voyage.

Fruit. Our imports of garden produce and fruit from Portugal are increasing, and this trade might, with Onions. advantage, be further developed. The Portugal onion is a cheap and delicate vegetable, and is getting to be much esteemed. Portugal grapes also reach us in good condition, and are sold at prices which admit of their general consumption. Our chief fruit trade with Portugal is, however, in oranges. We are indebted to the Portuguese for this most delicious of tropical fruits, they having originally transferred the plant from China to their own country. The orange trade in England is now one of considerable value and importance, oranges being even cheaper than most of our domestic fruits, whilst they are perhaps the most refreshing and wholesome of all the fruits we gather or import. Oranges are imported in boxes containing from 250 and upwards, and in chests holding 500 to 1,000. The quantity imported has been steadily increasing for some years past. In the three years ending with 1842 the average imports were 334,070 boxes; in the five years ending with 1850 they had increased to 380,000 boxes. Since then the quantity has been computed in bushels. The average annual imports in the five years ending with 1860 were 977,440 bushels. The quantity taken for consumption has now reached upwards of 1,000,000 bushels, and, assuming each bushel to contain 650, this would give 650 millions of oranges, or about 22 annually for each individual in the kingdom.

Grapes.

Oranges.

The quantity of oranges imported in 1860 were as follows:—

Oranges imported.

	BUSHELS.	VALUE.
From the Azores	627,709	£330,627
From Portugal	218,480	113,886
From Spain	158,674	77,079
From Sicily	140,983	64,547
From other Quarters	8,564	4,200
Total	1,154,410	£590,339

The oranges of "St. Michael."

The group of nine islands known as the "Azores," from which the largest portion of this supply comes, produces the finest oranges. Those from the Island of San Miguel (or St. Michael) are the most esteemed by us. The imports of oranges from the Azores have doubled during the last five years, and the production of oranges has consequently become the occupation of the population of the islands. The orange-gardens in St. Michael are now walled, and the bloom carefully protected. They gather the oranges for the London market as early as November. Up to 1853 there was a duty of 2*s.* 6*d.* a bushel on oranges and lemons, which was reduced to 8*d.* a bushel in that year. This greatly stimulated the trade, not so much by making oranges and lemons cheaper or inferior to the consumer, as by relieving the importer from a restriction. In 1860 the 8*d.* duty was repealed, and these delicious fruits can now be imported free. We think that we already see the advantage of this relief to the trade in the large quantities and superior qualities of the oranges sold in the streets of London in the early part of 1862.

Our exports to Portugal.

Our exports to Portugal in 1860 consisted of—

Cotton Manufactures	valued at	£775,317
Iron	,,	161,125
Woollen Manufactures	,,	124,739
Butter	,,	110,058
Spirits	,,	47,438
Coals	,,	44,792
Silk Manufactures	,,	41,656
Hardwares and Cutlery	,,	36,020
Linen	,,	31,889
Copper	,,	24,161
Machinery	,,	21,427
Cotton Yarn	,,	20,247
Brimstone, Refined	,,	18,442
Apparel and Slops	,,	16,663
Tin Plates	,,	16,597
Drugs	,,	8,192
Earthenware and Porcelain	,,	7,415
Painters' Colours	,,	7,145

Glass Manufactures	valued at	£6,571
White Lead	,,	5,842
Tin, Unwrought	,,	5,827
Lead and Shot	,,	4,436
Stationery	,,	4,379
Soap	,,	1,147
Sugar and Molasses	,,	89,009
Raw Cotton	,,	44,014
Indigo	,,	35,881
Tea	,,	35,202
Rice	,,	34,429
Silk	,,	18,457
Flax and Hemp	,,	16,691

Trade with the Azores.

In return for the oranges we received from the Azores, we sent to those islands—

Cotton Goods	valued at	£57,608
Woollen ,,	,,	11,814
Sugar, Refined	,,	6,330
Apparel	,,	2,680

Some small quantities of earthenware, cutlery, iron, linen, silk, and colonial produce, the total amounting to less than 100,000*l.*

Trade with Madeira.

With Madeira our trade has declined in consequence of the destruction of the grape in that island. Our importation of Madeira wine in 1860 was to the extent of nearly 60,000 gallons, whilst thirty years ago it exceeded 300,000 gallons. The number of English ships also visiting the island has fallen off. Formerly both East and West Indiamen touched at Madeira on their outward voyage to take in wines or provisions; but the island is now ordinarily only sighted. We sent to Madeira last year about 69,000*l.* worth of goods, of which cotton and woollens formed the major part.

British shipping employed in our trade with Portugal.

Our trade with Portugal is almost exclusively carried on with Oporto and Lisbon. The Portuguese are almost wholly indebted to us for shipping. Of 972 vessels which arrived from Portugal, Madeira, and the Azores in 1860, 815 were British, 83 only Portuguese, and 74 the vessels of other nations. Liverpool shares with London in the trade to Portugal. Southampton also does some portion of it.

Our trade with **SPAIN**

Whilst England has done everything during the last century and a half to cultivate an intimate commercial exchange with the little territory of Portugal, her rulers up to a very recent period have done scarcely anything to bring about more intimate relations with her far richer, more populous, and more productive neighbour, SPAIN. The Spanish Government has been, no doubt, as much answerable for this as was our own. Up to 1848 nothing could be worse than the commercial system of Spain. It was a system of prohibitions, under which the importation of articles of foreign manufacture or production into that country was almost absolutely prohibited. Yet Spain had an article of great importance to export, of which England took a large supply. Despite prohibition, therefore, trade went on. England annually received more and more Sherry from Cadiz, and Spain, although she prohibited them, was supplied with more and more British manufactures from England. It was, of course, the smuggler who reaped the advantage. The trade of the contrabandista became an established business in Spain. It was computed that from 100,000 to 150,000 persons were *directly* engaged in the occupation of smuggling. The number *indirectly* engaged was legion; for the Spanish custom-house was so notoriously corrupt, that almost any goods could be got through it for a consideration. A few years ago it was computed that 3,000 actions were annually instituted in Spain against illicit traders. "The courts of law were filled with perjury and the country with bloody conflicts." Yet, nevertheless, French and English goods might be purchased in all the shops at

restricted by her prohibitions,

which have been evaded by the smuggler.

Extent and character of the illicit trade.

Madrid, and, indeed, throughout Spain, at very little more than their price at Bayonne or Gibraltar, from whence they were principally smuggled. Three-fourths, in fact, of the trade of Spain was in the hands of the contrabandistas, and the Government revenue was proportionately small.

A Spanish tariff adopted A.D. 1849.

In 1849 the Spanish Government adopted a somewhat more rational system, and introduced a tariff, which removed prohibitions and levied *ad valorem* duties upon articles of different classes. These duties are in many cases too high, and there is a discriminating duty of 20 per cent. on importations in foreign vessels, which, considering the present condition of the Spanish mercantile marine, must operate as an additional tax on the consumer, without in any way protecting or encouraging Spanish shipping. But the effect of this tariff has been favourable. The trade of Spain since 1849 has decidedly been increasing. The exports of Spain in 1850 were only 4,000,000*l*. per annum; in 1856 they had risen to 10,636,000*l*. per annum; and the imports had risen from 6,000,000*l*. to 13,000,000*l*. Total increase of trade in six years nearly 14,000,000*l*.

Our exports to Spain.

The statistics of our own trade with Spain are not easily given, inasmuch as so large a proportion of our goods were for a long period imported clandestinely through Gibraltar, Malta, and Portugal; and a considerable proportion, though not to the same extent as formerly, continues to be introduced into that country through the same channels. But our direct exports to Spain have been increasing. They amounted

In 1850 to	£864,997
1854 to	1,436,106
1856 to	2,112,303
1858 to	2,366,562
1860 to	2,623,291

Our imports from Spain.

Our imports have gone up during the same period from three millions and a half to four millions. These consist of

Wine		valued in 1860 at	£1,734,613
Fruit, viz.—			
Raisins	£264,833		
Nuts	112,865		
Oranges	77,079		
Almonds	15,769		
Figs	11,874		
Grapes	4,730		
		,,	487,150
Wheat and Flour		,,	405,093
Lead		,,	374,497
Quicksilver		,,	271,209
Ores, unenumerated		,,	178,168
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'		,,	97,743
Copper Ore and Copper		,,	91,498
Oxen		,,	66,177
Manganese Ore		,,	44,059
Eggs		,,	34,019
Cork		,,	29,813
Olive Oil		,,	16,480
Madder		,,	9,692
Liquorice Juice and Paste		,,	3,755

Sherry.

The sherry wines, which are exclusively shipped at Cadiz, are little likely to be superseded in this country as dinner wines; unless, indeed, their price should be maintained at rates beyond their intrinsic value. The quantity of this wine entered for home consumption in England in 1861 was greatly in excess of preceding years; and it is to be hoped that the reduction of duty in this country will develop the trade and permit us to have purer and, at the same time, cheaper specimens of the article.

Dry fruits.

Raisins and almonds.

The fruit trade with Spain is chiefly in what are known as "dry fruits." Our duties on raisins and almonds were, up to 1853, very exorbitant. They were then reduced, and the consequence has been largely increased importation. We derive the best raisins (muscatels) and the best almonds (Jordan) from Malaga; Valencia also supplies us with these fruits. The nuts, for which we pay so large a sum as 112,000*l.* a year, come from Tarragona (these are known as Barcelona nuts). Our corn trade with Spain would rise into increased importance were there more facilities of inland carriage. At present, so large a proportion of the produce has to be brought down to the port of shipment on mules, that great waste is the consequence, as well as an undue expense for conveyance. The export of minerals from Spain has been increasing in importance, and the quantity of lead, quicksilver, copper, and other ores, manganese, &c., which we derive from Spanish mines is now considerable. Many of them are in the hands of English capitalists and are worked by English companies. Malaga is the chief port for the export of ores: all the lead ores which are worked on the coast near Adra are sent to Malaga for shipment. The produce of some other mines near Seville are shipped at Cadiz, to which they are brought by railway. It is curious to observe how the relations of Spain and England have altered with regard to wool, of which we at one time derived our largest import from Spain. At present the quantity of wool we receive from that country is comparatively unimportant; and, indeed, is largely exceeded by the quantity of woollens which we send to her.

Barcelona nuts.

Corn.

Minerals.

Wool.

Spain is so productive a country—her riches are so vast, and her labour is so cheap—that there can be no doubt that we might do a much larger trade with her were her internal customs' system placed upon a footing of more liberality. Spain has fallen from her high estate amongst commercial nations by her own fault, though it is not entirely by her own fault that she has not a better trade with England; for certainly the English Government have done little to cultivate

Direct and indirect trade with Spain.

commercial relations with this important, prolific, and adjacent country.

Exports to Spain.

It has been already observed, that it is difficult to estimate the amount of the exportations from England to Spain. In 1860 those direct to Spain amounted to 2,623,291*l.*; but those to Gibraltar, which were no doubt largely intended for Spain, amounted to 1,244,233*l.* more; and if we add the exportations to Malta and Gozo, of which a part would go to Spain, we have an additional sum to add to the amount. It is possible that in the whole we do not send much less than 4,000,000*l.* a year of our produce to Spain. The following table will show the items:—

EXPORTS TO SPAIN, GIBRALTAR, AND MALTA, 1860.

ARTICLES.	SPAIN.	GIBRALTAR.	MALTA.
Iron	£616,017	£37,024	£23,856
Linen Yarn	448,118	102,932*	
Coals	222,535	37,221	61,224
Machinery	308,087		
Woollen Manufactures	123,706	74,659	44,871
Cotton ,, ...	99,986	623,166*	354,390
Hardwares and Cutlery	91,795	33,848	8,304
Tin Plates and Unwrought	52,396	8,021	1,623
Bacon and Hams	48,495		
Telegraphic Wires	39,757		
Carriages of all sorts	35,607		
Provisions	35,940	——	2,537
Silk Manufactures	21,156	14,668*	2,580
Soda	17,985		
Cotton Yarn	15,744	4,660	40,032
Fish (Cod and Ling)	14,344		
Copper, Wrought	12,745	4,620	10,829
Drugs	7,617		
Linseed Oil	7,605	——	2,199
Woollen Yarn	7,137	3,967	
Apparel	5,535	38,684*	23,856
Glass	3,505	——	2,969

* These are the principal articles for smuggling. Some portion of the exports to Gibraltar are for trade with Morocco, and those to Malta for trade with Tripoli and Tunis.

Contraband trade.

It will be seen that whilst the heavier articles, iron, coals, machinery, hardwares, tin-plates, telegraphic wires, carriages, provisions, fish, copper, drugs, and oil, go to Spain direct, the contrabandista still does the principal trade in the lighter articles, such as cotton prints and wearing apparel, as well as a very large proportion of the business in linen yarn, woollens, silk manufactures, and the better sorts of cutlery. Gibraltar formerly did an enormous contraband trade with Spain in the article of tobacco, but this has declined. Tea, however, is still carried into Spain from Gibraltar in defiance of the customs.

Trade with ITALY.

Our trade with ITALY is represented by the following table:

STATES.	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
Sardinia (Genoa)	£265,714	£2,297,132
Tuscany (Leghorn)	575,064	1,198,257
Papal States (Civita Vecchia, Ancona) . . .	39,843	302,371
Two Sicilies (Naples, Palermo, Marsala, &c.) .	1,867,904	1,479,960
Austrian Territories (Venice and Trieste) . .	986,349	1,488,098
TOTAL	£3,734,874	£6,765,818

This table appears to show a very large balance in favour of Great Britain. The discrepancy is to some extent to be accounted for by a proportion of the produce of Northern Italy, especially silk, coming to us through France and by the Rhine. The iron and coal exported to Sardinia for railway purposes also swells the amount of exports.

Its increase in Northern Italy

During the last ten years our trade with Italy has been gradually increasing, especially with Sardinia, our exports to which country have almost doubled in amount. This result is attributable to improved means of internal communication, which attributable to improved means of internal transit.

promises rapidly to place the city of Genoa at the head of the Italian cities of commerce, if not to restore her to something like her former greatness. Bound in by an amphitheatre of mountains, the difficulty attending the conveyance of heavy goods from Genoa to the interior greatly circumscribed her trade; but now that the mountains have been penetrated by a railway, which brings Genoa into direct communication, not only with Piedmont, but with the Milanese, Lombardy, Parma, Modena, Venice, and even with the Tyrol, her trade must acquire greatly increased importance immediately peace is restored to the country she supplies.

Tuscany.

With Tuscany our trade has also increased largely of late, probably in consequence of the completion of the railway between Leghorn and Florence, and the opening out of Lucca, Sienna, and other productive districts. We obtain, *viâ* Leghorn, large quantities of the Carrara and Sienna marbles and of Boracic acid, the latter used as a flux for metals, and brought to us from the famous lagoons near Monte Cerbole,* where an ingenious manufacturer, M. Larderel (Count de la Pomarance), has constructed pans in which water, impregnated with the acid, is evaporated by the heat of the lagoons, and the acid deposited in crystals. We also derive through Leghorn considerable quantities of Lucca and Florence oil, anchovies, lard, lambskins, copper ore, rags, and some wheat and flour. The "Leghorn bonnets" and "Tuscan hats," once so fashionable, are now to a great extent supplanted, although the heavy duty which formerly existed on them has been removed. The fact appears to be,

Boracic acid.

Leghorn bonnets.

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* These lagoons are spread over a surface of thirty square miles. They consist of a number of low volcanoes and springs in a furious state of ebullition. The ground upon the banks shakes and burns beneath the feet. The vapours, which are impregnated with the boracic acid, send out dense and unsavoury odours. The peasants of the country long deemed the district an entrance to the infernal regions, and regarded it with great superstition (*vide* Dr. Bowring's Report on the Statistics of Tuscany).

that our own manufacture of straw bonnets has so considerably improved as to supersede the Tuscans, which always were extremely high in price.

The Papal States.

With the Papal States we can scarcely be said to have any trade; some cream of tartar, lambskins, rags, walnut wood, and brimstone, constituting the whole of our imports, the value of which is very trifling. With Southern Italy (Naples and Sicily) we have, however, been doing a largely increasing trade; and it is to be hoped, now that a more rational government is likely to be established in this kingdom, that it will greatly and speedily improve. Sicily was once the granary of Europe, and both its soil and climate afford it the means of producing almost any amount of grain. But the labours of the husbandman and of the merchant were both, for a long time, restricted by a series of the most odious and oppressive restraints; having apparently for their sole object to create a monopoly in the export trade of grain in favour of persons of high distinction, and even, it has been said, in favour of members of the family of the Sovereign himself. In the same way the late Neapolitan Government dealt with the sulphur trade. Some few years since they adopted measures which virtually placed that trade in the hands of a French company; and had not the British Government remonstrated and secured an alteration of the system, England would have been compelled to purchase all her sulphur through the intervention of the French. Our trade with Sicily for this article has been rising rapidly and largely. In 1833 we only took 19,122 tons of sulphur from Sicily: in 1838, 38,654 tons: but our present import exceeds an average of 50,000 tons; and the value of the quantity imported in 1860 was computed at nearly 500,000*l*. The wine which we obtain from Sicily is the produce of the district

Naples.

Sicily, its corn, sulphur, and wine.

around Marsala, and was first introduced into consumption in England in consequence of a report from Lord Nelson, recommending it for the use of the fleet instead of rum. In general this wine is very indifferently made from grapes which are grown on or close to the ground, from which they derive an earthy flavour. The wine sent to England is principally grown and shipped by English capitalists who have embarked in the trade, and who have their business at Marsala. More care is bestowed on the vintage where their influence prevails; but still the wine of Marsala, although it has many good qualities, cannot be regarded as likely to compete with the vintage of Spain; and latterly the importation has not been increasing.

The oil trade at Gallipoli.

The best olive oil brought from Southern Italy comes from Gallipoli, and since the reduction of duty on this article the trade has been largely increased. The whole country between Gioja and Gaeta is covered with olive trees; and, in fact, Apulia and Calabria may be said to produce little else. The olives are permitted to hang on the trees till they drop; they are then picked up by women and children and carried to the mill, at which they are expressed. The oil is then brought, in sheep or goat-skin sacks, on the backs of mules, to the magazine, or cistern, of the merchant, in Gallipoli, in which it is clarified to the highest possible degree. When the oil is to be shipped, it is drawn off from the cistern into skins, and carried on men's shoulders to a house on the sea-shore, where it is measured in a large open basin, and then racked off into casks admirably made of well-seasoned staves, which, before being put together, are well soaked in sea-water. These casks, when filled, are rolled to the brink of the sea by porters, and from thence are towed by boats to the ship waiting to be laden. There is no reason why Oil, now it can be obtained at a low price, should not enter more largely into domestic use in this country. In many culinary preparations it is a superior article to butter; and it is probable that, had it not been for the enormous customs duty which for some years we levied upon this article, it would have been much more largely used by us than it has been. It is objected that most English palates dislike the taste of oil; but the fact is that *good* olive oil has *no taste* whatever; and that where there is a taste to it, it has been either badly manipulated or has suffered from long keeping. The prejudice against oil in England more probably arises from the use which has been made in this country of various descriptions of nauseous oils for medicinal purposes. There can be no doubt that olive oil itself is one of the most nutritious and wholesome of all articles of food.

Consumption of oil in England.

Shumac is another article which we derive in considerable quantities from Southern Italy. The Italian shumac is used for producing a full yellow dye, approaching to the orange; but the colour is said to be fugitive. Commoner sorts of shumac produce dove colours in calico-printing, and are also capable of dyeing black. Liquorice we cultivate at home, especially at Mitcham in Surrey, and Pontefract in Yorkshire, where the strong, rich, black, loamy soils are peculiarly suited to the growth of the plant. But we derive nearly all our "Liquorice juice and paste" from Southern Italy, where the roots of liquorice are crushed in mills, then slowly boiled until they become of a proper consistency, and afterwards refined and purified. The article is largely used in medicine by our chemists, and our importation of liquorice juice has been increasing considerably.

Shumac.

Liquorice juice.

The comparatively small amount of our imports from the Austrian possessions in Italy, affords a more

Trade with the Austrian territory.

interesting and suggestive record than is at first sight apparent. The two largest items on the list, 245,000*l.* of corn, and 154,000*l.* worth of beads and bugles, present very different subjects for reflection. Beads and bugles are now almost the sole export of the once great and flourishing commerce of Venice. They are the produce of her own glass manufactories, for which the Venetians were once so famous, and of which the remains are still carried on on the island of Murano. The corn imported was, on the other hand, the produce of the plains of Styria and Sclavonia, brought by railway to the flourishing port of Trieste, with which our trade with the dominions of Austria will probably henceforward be most largely conducted. Venice, commercially considered, represents only the past; whilst Trieste, opening out hitherto unpenetrated districts to British trade, represents, it may be hoped, a prosperous future.

Venice.

Trieste.

Commercial importance of Trieste.

Trieste, almost the sole port of the great territory of Austria, has, hitherto, been traded with by England to a very limited extent. Hemmed in, like Genoa, by high ranges of mountains, this commercial city has, up to a very recent period, been unable to develop her trade, in consequence of the distances to be traversed and the difficulties attending transport. But the railway system now perfected brings Trieste not only in direct communication with the interior of Austria Proper, but opens out to her all the commerce of Hungary. Situated as this city is, embracing as she does within her port the largest proportion of the commercial marine of the empire, having within herself a sound and successful mercantile system of undoubted solidity, and having behind her all the riches of an absolutely undeveloped territory of unusual extent and population, there must be a great fault and failure somewhere if Trieste, in a very few years, does not rise to immense commercial importance.

Large extent to which our trade with Austria might be developed.

It will have been seen that at the present time our whole trade with Austria, through Venice and Trieste, amounts to no more than a million a year of imports, and a million and a half of exports—values absolutely trivial, considering the extent of the empire, and the rich and varied productions of almost every section of her territory. Hungary can afford any quantity of corn and wine, both of the highest qualities and at the lowest prices. All the corn-growing plains, watered by the Danube, can now find means of exporting their produce through Trieste. The wines of Hungary, equal in every respect to those of Burgundy, are drank in Vienna at from sixpence to a shilling a bottle, and can be had in England (where they are almost utterly unknown) at a very trifling advance upon that price, the difference being nothing more than the cost of shipment and transit from Trieste. It will be the fault of our own merchants if these wines, of which the supply is unlimited, do not come into large consumption in this country. Trieste can also furnish us with admirable woods, the produce of the forests of Carniola; also staves, which we already import to the extent of nearly 100,000*l.* a year; and minerals of almost every description. The rich trade of the Austrian Empire, in fact, has been almost wholly undeveloped by our merchants. Of 2,276 vessels which entered Trieste in 1857, only ninety-five were British; and our direct trade with Austria is, in proportion to the population of that empire, absolutely, at the present time, the smallest of any in Europe.*

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* Some allowance has of course to be made for trade with the Northern States of Austria, *viâ* the Elbe and Hamburg; but the above remark holds good even with this allowance.

Italian trade.

The following tables will be interesting, as showing, at one view, the varied character of the trades which we carry on with the different states of Italy :—

Imports.

IMPORTS FROM ITALY, 1860.

ARTICLES.	SARDINIA.	TUSCANY.	PAPAL STATES.	TWO SICILIES.	AUSTRIAN TERRITORIES
	£	£	£	£	£
Olive Oil	58,036	148,751	—	683,942	12,083
Essential Oils	3,748	—	—	41,266	
Gun Stocks	45,551				
Walnut Wood	24,976	13,680	8,449		
Bark	28,912				
Sugar, Unrefined	20,178				
Cream of Tartar	2,764	—	9,243	40,032	22,981
Marble	4,309	62,070			
Boracic Acid	—	77,336			
Lard	—	36,828	—	—	75,577
Lamb Skins	—	31,769	3,933	—	5,217
Sponge	—	—	—	—	15,489
Copper Ore	1,871	20,375			
Rags	—	18,942	8,241		
Corn, Wheat, and Flour	2,154	20,454	1,680	6,096	245,743
Straw Platting	—	7,914			
Anchovies	—	7,129			
Madder Root	—	—	—	71,469	
Argol	—	16,969	—	35,298	11,231
Silk	—	—	—	17,460	
Straw Hats	—	3,596			
Shumac	—	—	—	153,066	15,448
Tallow	—	3,033	—	—	8,885
Wine	—	—	—	58,278	
Vermicelli and Macaroni	8,587	—	—	1,179	
Liquorice Juice and Paste	—	—	—	52,587	
Brimstone	—	—	1,559	475,023	
Oranges and Lemons	—	—	—	64,547	
Barilla	—	—	—	10,574	
Bones	—	—	—	8,056	7,088
Juice of Lemons and Oranges	—	—	—	12,093	
Bugles and Glass Beads	—	—	—	—	154,534
Wooden Staves	—	—	—	—	98,977
Currants	—	—	—	—	20,060
Seeds, Clover and Grass	—	—	—	—	16,156
Valerian	—	—	—	—	3,246

Our principal exports to these states will be seen by the following table :—

Exports.

EXPORTS TO ITALY, 1860.

ARTICLES.	SARDINIA.	TUSCANY.	PAPAL STATES.	TWO SICILIES.	AUSTRIAN TERRITORIES
	£	£	£	£	£
Apparel, Slops, &c.	14,546	10,319	1,579	11,139	5,670
Coals	89,518	6,416	7,093	56,980	52,882
Copper	71,358	15,541	571	30,531	13,203
Cotton Goods	400,408	407,396	125,517	373,833	327,153
,, Yarn	185,646	197,030	81,634	354,873	189,764
Drugs	2,821	3,461	—	4,194	2,619
Earthenware	7,268	4,846	218	6,653	4,117
Fish: Herrings and Pilchards	—	16,475	4,331	9,524	15,984
Hardwares.	35,279	14,718	1,113	19,289	8,840
Iron	211,066	69,358	28,670	136,476	131,956
Linen Goods	46,109	30,735	4,239	38,558	19,356
,, Yarn	139,254	25,638	3,379	23,999	5,508
Machinery.	66,773	13,734	—	42,443	27,582
Oil: Linseed	44,372	—	—	—	36,396
Saltpetre	—	15,792	—	4,886	4,085
Silk Manufactures	15,590	7,729	1,890	4,977	7,897
Soda	—	—	—	—	15,504
Tin Plates	35,657	8,621	808	14,015	13,976
Woollen Goods	301,872	139,116	27,029	118,533	68,447
,, Yarn	22,763				
Colonial Produce	432,794	163,822	8,196	158,621	494,429

Our exports to Italy have largely increased in the last ten years, as the following comparative table will show:—

EXPORTS OF BRITISH PRODUCE TO ITALY.*

STATES.	1850.	1860.
Sardinia	£774,512	£1,864,338
Tuscany	769,409	1,034,435
Papal States	222,559	294,175
Two Sicilies	1,026,456	1,321,339
Austrian Territories	607,755	993,669
TOTAL	£2,800,891	£5,507,956

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* Exclusive of Colonial and Foreign Produce.

Prospects of the Italian trade.

There is still, however, great room for improvement, especially with Southern Italy and the territories occupied by Austria; and there is every reason to hope that this improvement will soon be made apparent. Under a liberal Government, the riches of Southern Italy cannot fail to be speedily opened up to commerce, and the Austrians are already showing a desire, amounting to anxiety, to extend the trade between Trieste and England.

Shipping employed in it.

The total number of vessels employed in our trade with Italy in 1860 was 771, of 178,396 tons burden, of which about 125,000 tons was British. Liverpool did the largest share of this trade, employing 194 ships of 71,000 tons. London employed 241 ships of 50,000 tons. The trade is principally carried on in sailing vessels, although from Liverpool there are lines of steam packets several times a month to various Italian ports, which accounts for the superior tonnage that port employs in this trade. Proposals have been recently published for opening a new line of direct steam communication to Trieste, under the sanction and with the assistance of the Austrian authorities. The line is much wanted, and if judiciously commenced and worked would probably be successful. London and Southampton have been mentioned as the probable ports of departure.

Our trade with GREECE.

We now come to consider the trade of Great Britain with GREECE, which, from the number and wealth of the Greek merchants settled in London and Manchester, might be supposed to be extensive. The fact is, however, that the trade of the Greek merchants is with all the Levant; and that the trade of England with Greece Proper is very limited, and is by no means increasing in amount. Our imports consist almost exclusively of currants from Patras, which were imported, in 1860, to the extent

Its character.

of 630,000*l.*; the computed value of the entire imports being only 677,000*l.*; and our exports to Greece being only of about the same value, and consisting principally of cottons, woollens, and iron. The currants which we import from Patras have not the same reputation in our market as those supplied to us from the Ionian Islands, but the fruit is better gathered and is procurable in larger quantities and at less prices, for reasons which will be presently explained. Hence our largest supply is obtained from Greece.

The fruit trade.

This fruit trade is almost entirely conducted in London. Some years since it was carried on in swift sailing vessels (schooners), and as the cargo of fruit which first arrived always secured the best price, great was the excitement amongst the dealers under the shadow of the Monument when the vessels were expected in the Thames. The adoption of steamers, however, for this traffic has put an end to the speculation which formerly prevailed, the days of arrival being now a matter of certainty, within the knowledge of all the merchants.

Trade of the Ionian Islands.

In connexion with the Greek trade we should mention that of the Ionian Islands, which, although they are under "British protection," are treated, as regards commerce and duties, as well as in other matters, as if they were a foreign nation instead of a dependency. It has been already noticed that we derive a large supply of currants from the island of Zante. Our imports from the Ionian Islands generally, amounted in 1860 to 267,730*l.*, of which 182,000*l.* came to us in the shape of currants, and 68,000*l.* in olive oil. Our principal exports to these islands were cotton goods and yarn, woollen goods, apparel and haberdashery, and coals; the last probably for the supply of our own men-of-war and merchant steamers. The trade of these islands has increased considerably since 1850, and is capable of large development. In 1850 we exported to the Ionian Islands domestic produce to the value of 135,912*l.*, whilst in 1860 our exports amounted to 345,055*l.*, an increase of 156 per cent. in ten years.

The British "Protection" injurious to the commerce of these islands.

Now, there is no doubt that the Ionian trade might be still further improved, under a system which gave any encouragement to the population of these islands. But, on the contrary, our rule, which has been a merely military occupation, has in reality been oppressive to the cultivation and commerce of these productive islands.

Taxes on their exports.

In order to support the large and expensive establishments which are maintained in these islands—including a "Lord High Commissioner's Civil List" of 14,500*l.* a year, a "Civil Establishment" of 40,000*l.* a year, a "Judicial Establishment" exceeding 15,000*l.*, and a "Contingent Government Expenditure" of 20,000*l.* a year—a revenue is levied in the Ionian Islands upon "exports." The burden of this tax falls, of course, upon the staple products of the islands, oil and currants, in which commodities the Ionians have to compete with Italy and Greece. The export duty on these articles amounts to 18 per cent. *ad valorem;* and, hence, for the support of extravagant establishments, utterly unfitted to the people "protected," the commerce of these islands is placed under disadvantages, for which nothing but the extreme fertility and productiveness of the soil could possibly compensate. Great complaints have been made of late years of the "bad spirit" prevailing amongst the population of the Ionian Islands, who have been condemned as wanting in industry, in attention to their patrimony, and as cultivating arts of state corruption and intrigue in preference to cultivating their own soil. But who are to blame for this so much as those who display before the eyes of the population the wealth and power consequent upon possession of office, at the same time that, for its maintenance, they levy taxes which greatly discourage the cultivation of the islands and the trade of the population? It is probable that if we induced a better system in these dependencies, and gave due encouragement to their commerce, we might make the Ionian Islands an important acquisition of the British Crown, not merely for the military and naval, but also for the commercial objects of the realm.

The trade of Syra

Before leaving the commerce of Greece, mention must be made of Syra, an island of the Greek Archipelago, which, during the last quarter of a century, has become a considerable commercial *entrepôt*. The commerce at this port is chiefly carried on by Greek merchants, who have attained the distinction of being the carriers, factors, and traders of the Levant. This is due mainly to the great advantage they possess over other foreigners in their knowledge of the languages, customs, habits, and requirements of the various Eastern populations with whom they have to trade. The Greeks are able to avoid the profits necessarily given by other merchants to middlemen for collecting the goods they require and for selling their commodities to the inland traders. The habits of the Greek merchants also enable them to deal in any class of goods, whether in large or small quantities; and their extensive banking and exchange operations afford them facilities for commerce, which, until a comparatively recent period, were not possessed by other merchants in the Levant.*

carried on by Greek merchants.

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* The establishment of the Ottoman Bank and the Bank of Egypt, sister institutions, which have their head-quarters in London, now enables British traders in

Situation and shipping of Syra.

Syra is admirably situated as a depôt for trade, and the number of vessels resorting to it are annually on the increase. 6,600 vessels of 570,000 tons burden entered its waters in 1858, of which number 163 of 79,000 tons were vessels which brought goods from England. The largest portion of the trade of the island is, however, conducted in vessels under the flags of Greece, Turkey, and Austria, which carry on the trade between Syra and those countries.

Our trade with TURKEY.

Our trade with European and Asiatic Turkey has greatly increased during the last ten years; but it is not to be exactly measured either by the amount of the importation or exportation, as the importation varies according to the condition of the corn trade, and as a large quantity of the goods exported (nominally) to Constantinople are destined for Russian ports in the Black Sea, whilst goods consigned to ports in the Levant are, in the same way, intended for trade with Persia. In 1860 our imports and exports were as follows:—

	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
Turkey Proper	£3,178,109	£4,588,108
Wallachia and Moldavia . . .	2,252,246	201,273
Syria and Palestine	75,137	668,458
	£5,505,492	£5,457,839

The corn trade of Galatz.

From Wallachia and Moldavia, corn (principally maize and barley) and seeds (rapeseed and millet) were almost the sole articles composing the large total of imports. The products of these territories were received direct from the respective ports of Ibrail and Galatz, the latter of which is rapidly becoming a first-rate emporium for the produce of

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Turkey, Syria, and Egypt, to avail themselves of these advantages. These Banks were immensely opposed, in the first instance, by interested parties, and had, in consequence, great difficulties to surmount.

the vast and fertile countries traversed by the Danube. Galatz is a free port, and vessels of 300 tons can lie at its quays; but the navigation of the river up to it is not always easy. The trade of the district has been chiefly carried on by Greek merchants; but there are now English houses which have establishments and representatives at Galatz, and the Ottoman Bank has a branch there.

Imports from Syria.

Our imports from Syria and Palestine consist of galls, madder root, olive oil, saffron, wool, and scammony, the article first mentioned constituting nearly a half of the whole. The gall nuts of the Syrian oak have, from a very remote period, been regarded as superior to those procurable in any other country. Gall is largely used in the manufacture of ink, in the art of dyeing, and in medicine.

List of imports from Turkey.

Our imports from Turkey are represented by the following table :—

Corn	valued, in 1860, at	£825,092
Madder Root	,,	421,256
Goats' Wool	,,	378,071
Valonia	,,	261,501
Sponge	,,	238,383
Opium	,,	187,643
Silk (Raw and Waste)	,,	148,511
Raisins	,,	126,508
Figs	,,	90,922
Boxwood	,,	45,647
Wool (Sheep and Lambs')	,,	39,929
Scammony	,,	30,268
Stone	,,	28,957
Tobacco	,,	26,569
Olive Oil	,,	17,075
Lamb Skins	,,	17,037
Carpets and Rugs	,,	15,869
Otto of Roses	,,	15,828
Tallow	,,	8,436
Gum	,,	7,406
Galls	,,	5,585
Yellow Berries	,,	5,262
Nuts	,,	4,530
Chromate of Iron	,,	2,160

Corn.
Madder.
Sponge.
Opium.
Raisins.
Figs.
Scammony.
Carpets.
Yellow berries.

The corn consisted chiefly of maize. The madder root, of which we obtain so large a quantity from Smyrna, is grown at Kurdar, near that place, and affords a brighter colour than the Zealand madder sent us by the Dutch. Smyrna is also the chief market for sponge, which is speared or dived for, where it is found adhering to the rocks about the islands of the Archipelago. The opium produced in Turkey yields a much larger quantity of morphia than that produced in India; and as opium is chiefly used in this country as a drug, it consequently produces a higher price. The black Smyrna raisin is a common variety inferior to the raisins produced in Spain; but Turkey produces the best sort of figs which come to our market. The scammony, of which we receive so large an amount, is a gum resin peculiar to Syria, and is only used in medicine. It is imported from Smyrna in cakes, like wax, packed in chests. The Turkey carpets and rugs imported are about an average quantity, and represent our own annual consumption of this superior article of manufacture. The Turkey yellow berries are an unripe fruit, and are used as a dye drug in calico-printing. The other articles in our list of imports from Turkey do not require observation.

Export Trade.

Our export trade to Turkey, although increasing, is by no means so considerable as it should be, considering the position of Constantinople for trade, the resources and population of the empire, and the countenance which the Turks have always given to commerce. This is owing to the disorganized condition of the country, to the absence of internal development, and the want of facilities for transport. Commerce can only be expected to improve with the internal improvement of the nation.

The following is the list of exports:—

EXPORTS, 1860.

Exports to Turkey.

ARTICLES.	TURKEY.	SYRIA.	MOLDAVIA.
	£	£	£
Cotton Goods	2,810,426	496,188	39,900
„ Yarn	738,984	96,683	43,114
Iron	131,857	—	35,875
Woollen Goods	113,732	4,881	792
Coals	91,623	8,220	5,210
Machinery	61,640	—	457
Copper	58,406	19,162	
Sugar, Refined	49,561	460	1,615
Hardwares and Cutlery	34,550	3,099	2,443
Tin	36,488	4,239	3,984
Stationery	29,862		
Apparel	25,804	3,171	
Tin Plates	20,328	1,518	16,347
Linen Goods	24,217		
Earthenware	19,322	2,046	3,190
Silk Goods	14,482		
Glass Manufactures	11,458		
Plate and Jewellery	10,718		
Telegraphic Wire	7,325		
Beer and Ale	4,559		
Furniture	3,261		
Painters' Colours	3,558		
Gunpowder	1,930		
Butter	1,265		
Coffee	53,787	857	7,611
Tea	25,637	—	6,591
Indigo	21,947	589	
Cochineal	20,498	416	832
Rice	17,157	8,005	6,015
Pepper	7,652	773	2,128
Spirits	2,489	—	1,162

It is probable that some portion of the goods sent to Moldavia and Wallachia were intended for the Upper Danube.

Shipping.

The shipping engaged in our trade with Turkey and her provinces is about one-half foreign and one-half British. The trade of Liverpool with the Levant is carried on by regular steam-vessels belonging to that port. A very large proportion of the trade with Galatz is, however, carried on in vessels under the Austrian and other flags, which bring corn here and clear out in ballast. A very large share of this business is done with Cork, which now imports, for Irish consumption, considerable quantities of Turkish maize.

Our trade with EGYPT.

Our trade with EGYPT represents a very large and a most rapidly increasing total; but it is to be observed, that a very large proportion of this trade, and especially of our imports from Egypt, consists merely of articles in transit from India. The following have been our imports and exports for the last five years:—

YEAR.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
1856	£5,753,518	£1,630,833
1857	7,853,876	1,955,446
1858	6,026,191	2,141,075
1859	8,572,312	2,341,693
1860	10,352,574	2,598,912

Transit trade from India.

Our importation, *viâ* Egypt, of raw and manufactured silks, elephants' teeth, &c. from India amounted, in 1860, to nearly 7,000,000*l.*, which has to be deducted from the 10,300,000*l.* of imports. Exclusive of these items, we received from Egypt in 1860:—

Imports from Egypt.

Raw Cotton	valued at	£1,480,895
Corn (chiefly Wheat and Beans)	,,	907,947
Manufactures of Goat's Hair and Wool	,,	464,576
Seeds for expressing Oil therefrom	,,	96,129
Wool (Sheep and Lambs')	,,	83,925
Gum Arabic	,,	69,901
Pearls (probably from Ceylon)	,,	49,840
Rags	,,	31,737
Coffee	,,	18,927
Flax (dressed and undressed)	,,	18,445
Lentils	,,	18,426
Jewels (unset)	,,	11,600
Linseed and Flax-seed	,,	10,863
Musk	,,	7,864
Opium	,,	6,384
Tortoise Shell	,,	1,909
Senna	,,	1,598

Cotton, which stands at the head of our list **Cotton.** of importations from Egypt, has been grown in that country from a very remote antiquity. The native cotton, however, was of very inferior quality, and it was not until the seeds of the best Sea Island cotton were imported from America that Egyptian-grown cotton acquired any reputation in our markets. For some years what was called Egyptian Sea Island cotton, *i.e.* the produce of the best American seed grown on Egyptian soil, secured a price only second to the price of American Sea Island cotton. But its culture was never very extensive; and whether from the character of the climate, or from want of care, or both causes, it has very much degenerated. The total amount of cotton brought to us from Egypt is comparatively unimportant in proportion to the supply we require for the purposes of our manufactures. In 1860, out of 12,500,000 cwts. of cotton, Egypt only sent us 392,000 cwts. or little more than one-thirtieth. And not only is her production limited, but she appears to have no power of expanding that production. In 1861, when distress was anticipated in consequence of the civil war in America interrupting the supply, Egypt sent us less cotton than in the preceding year.

It is not, therefore, to Egypt that we must look **Corn.** for cotton. We might look to her for a large supply of corn, particularly wheat and beans, in periods of scarcity; but the truth is, that Egypt is not our best market for corn, which we can ordinarily obtain with greater facilities from Russia, Poland, and America, where we also find better markets for our goods. In Egypt, too, we have a competitor in the corn market, for the Egyptians are the corn-growers for the grape-growing populations of the Mediterranean and the Levant, whose demand for corn maintains the price of this article in ordinary years in Egypt.

Exports to Egypt.

The articles exported to Egypt are shown in the following abstract:—

Cotton Manufactures	valued at	£1,049,545
*Apparel and Haberdashery	,,	223,116
*Plate and Jewellery	,,	170,907
Silk Manufactures	,,	123,852
Iron	,,	84,617
Cotton Yarn	,,	83,070
*Books	,,	70,987
Copper	,,	75,780
Machinery	,,	69,457
Indigo	,,	62,832
Coals	,,	54,313
Hardwares and Cutlery	,,	41,215
Steam Engines	,,	38,070
*Stationery	,,	34,353
Woollen Goods	,,	24,706
*Arms and Ammunition	,,	17,071
*Linen	,,	15,715
Carriages	,,	15,063
*Mathematical Instruments	,,	14,494
*Provisions	,,	13,497
*Drugs	,,	11,720
*Earthenware	,,	8,090
*Wine	,,	6,689
Silk Manufactures	,,	6,261
*Brandy	,,	5,802
Tobacco	,,	4,812
*Opium	,,	4,447
Cochineal	,,	3,274

Probably the largest proportion of the articles marked thus (*) were intended for India.

Shipping employed.

Our trade with Egypt employed, in 1860, 320 vessels of 163,800 tons burden, of which 133,500 tons was British and only 30,000 foreign. The bulk of this trade is carried on in large steam-vessels from Southampton and Liverpool. Two-thirds of the raw silk we receive from India comes to the London market, *viâ* Southampton, by the Peninsular and Oriental Company's splendid ships trading between Alexandria and Southampton.* The facility which the railway affords between Alexandria and Suez greatly assists this transit trade.

The Suez Canal project.

The Suez Canal project, still in some quarters a matter of speculation, has at no time received any encouragement or pecuniary support in London. The French, with whom a canal through the desert has been a favourite scheme, have endeavoured to account for this by, what they style, our "vested interest" in the long sea voyage. But in truth England is more interested than any nation in obtaining the shortest and most facile "route" to India, whether by the Isthmus of Suez or by any other channel; and even were our "vested interests" in the long sea passage much greater than they are, there is sufficient enterprise and capital in London, amongst parties interested in the trade through Egypt in opposition to the route round the Cape, to give an impulse to the Suez Canal project, did it appear likely at any time to prove remunerative.

Its impracticability.

The fact is, that the parties in this country best qualified to form an opinion of the feasibility of this project have come to the conclusion that it is not practicable. The very fact that a canal did once exist on the route of that proposed to be constructed appears to them the best evidence, not in favour of, but in opposition to the scheme. For if a canal for small vessels once existed, which choked up, and was obliged (as is said) to be again and again re-opened, and of which even the traces are now almost entirely obliterated, how much less likely is it that any canal for large ships could be kept open? We know that Alexander the Great

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* Of 9,178,000 lb. of silk imported in 1860, 6,350,000 lb. came by this route.

Reasons for believing that it never could be kept open.

felt the difficulty of maintaining a deep harbour at Pelusium to be so vast, that he founded the port and city of Alexandria to the westward of the Nile, in order to avoid the effect of the current which carried down the *débris* of that great and mud-producing river to the harbour of Pelusium, and to the mouth of the canal from thence to Suez. And we know further that the same Nile still continues to bring down mud, and that the same current still continues to sweep it into the Bay of Pelusium. But the harbour required to be made there, and the channel required to be maintained from thence to Suez must be infinitely larger and deeper than was needed in the days of Alexander. The difficulties, therefore, which that sovereign considered insurmountable remain as great as ever; whilst, if they ever could be overcome, the operations needed to overcome them for the purposes of our day would be far greater than they were two thousand years ago. We believe, therefore, in Alexander the Great rather than in M. Lesseps. We believe that the undertaking he proposes is not feasible; that a canal which depends upon the practicability of maintaining and keeping open a deep entrance at Pelusium is not feasible; and we decline to risk three millions in the sands of the desert, and of that shallow shore to the eastward of the Nile, in which all human experience has shown that it is impossible to keep a harbour open.

Feeling of the British public respecting the canal.

That it would be to the interest of England to have a navigable channel from the Mediterranean to the Red Sea no one can question. If it was thought that it would be practicable to construct it, the commercial men of London, of all classes, would be the first to give it their time, their money, and their experience. It is because they know that the construction and maintenance of the channel is an impracticability that they refuse to encourage and almost to listen to it. They confide in the opinions of a great English engineer who declared "that nothing could be effected, even by "the most unlimited expenditure of time, and life, "and money, beyond the formation of a stagnant "ditch between two almost tideless seas, unapproach-"able by large ships under any circumstances, and "only capable of being used by small vessels when "the prevalent winds permitted their exit and their "entrance." "I believe," added Mr. Robert Ste-"phenson to this opinion, "that the project will "prove abortive in itself and ruinous to those "engaged in it." And the British public concur in this opinion.

CHAPTER VI.

COMMERCE WITH AMERICA, AFRICA, AND ASIA.

Our commerce with the UNITED STATES,

THE preceding chapter has been devoted to an account of the commerce of England with various European and other countries, which is chiefly conducted in the Port of London. We now come to speak of trades in which London has only a share, the chief intercourse being with other British ports. In regard to the trade of England with the United States, Liverpool stands so pre-eminent that she may be almost said to engross the business. This arises not only from her situation on the seaboard of the Atlantic, but from her immediate proximity to the great seat of our cotton manufacture. It is, of course, the greatest object with the manufacturers of Lancashire to obtain their cotton at the nearest seaport, and consequently with the least expense for inland carriage. Before railways were thought of, a ship canal was projected to bring the cotton ships direct from the Mersey to Manchester, without unloading at Liverpool at all; and at a later date, amongst other projects of a period of railway mania, a plan was actually proposed to bring the ships to the Manchester manufactories by railway, so as to save the cost of the double handling at either terminus.

engrossed by Liverpool,

and why.

Situated as she is, it is not to be wondered at that Liverpool enjoys the trade with the great cotton-

Importance of a western port for the purposes of Atlantic steam navigation.

producing country of the world. Since the Atlantic has been traversed by steam-ships the trade with America has more and more centred itself in Liverpool, and is more and more likely to do so. Before that change in navigation, London carried on a very considerable trade with the United States, in first-class passenger ships which sailed from the Thames, calling at Southampton or Plymouth for passengers. These vessels sometimes made the passage from port to port in almost as short a time as the "liners" from Liverpool. But the introduction of steam-vessels naturally superseded this; for it was, of course, of the first consequence to vessels compelled to carry large supplies of coal, to save the navigation of the British Channel and the Thames, which would have added so greatly to the burden of their fuel. Hence the first attempts at Atlantic navigation by steam were made from the western ports of Bristol and Liverpool; of which Liverpool, from its proximity to Manchester, was obviously the port best adapted for the trade.

Amount of our trade with the United States.

In 1860 the trade of the United States with England was larger than that of any other country in the world. It represented no less than SIXTY-SEVEN millions of money, viz.:—

Imports from the United States	£44,724,312
Exports to ditto	22,907,681
TOTAL	£67,631,993

All but about one million of the export trade was produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom.

The cotton trade.

Of the great import trade from the United States, the bulk was raw cotton, which we imported to the amount of no less than thirty millions of money. This enormous quantity of produce was chiefly received from the Southern States, the shipping ports being New Orleans, Mobile, and Charleston; whilst, on the other hand, the great bulk of our exports of manufactured goods was to the Northern States, which diffused them through the Union by means of coasting craft and railways.

Imports of cotton, 1860.

The United States sent us, in 1860, nearly all the cotton we consumed. The following table, showing the quantities and values of this article received from every country, will not be without its interest:—

COTTON IMPORTED, 1860.

COUNTRY.	CWTS.	VALUE.
From the United States	9,963,309	£30,069,306
„ British East India	1,822,689	3,373,614
„ Egypt	392,447	1,480,895
„ Brazil	154,347	561,949
„ Mauritius	28,250	82,672
„ France	19,524	62,562
„ British West Indies	7,336	27,280
„ Peru	2,571	9,518
„ British Guiana	2,046	8,825
„ the Western Coast of Africa	2,069	6,094
„ South Africa	1,186	3,336
„ other parts	23,322	70,838
TOTAL	12,419,096	£35,756,889

Rapid progress of the cotton supply.

Previously to 1790 the United States did not supply us with a single pound of cotton. It was first exported in 1791, when the trifling quantity of 189,316 lb. was shipped. In 1800 only about 50,000,000 lb. of cotton was imported altogether into England, and the United States produced a very small proportion of that quantity. The increase of our imports from the United States during the last twenty years will be seen from the following table:—

RAW COTTON IMPORTED FROM THE UNITED STATES.

YEAR.	LB.
1840	487,856,504
1844	517,218,622
1849	634,504,050
1854	722,154,101
1860	1,955,982,800

In twenty years, therefore, we have more than quadrupled our import.

Our commerce with America largely increased by free trade.

The value of our trade with the United States will be illustrated by the following long and curious table of imports and exports. It is interesting to notice what free trade has done for us. The corn, cheese, bacon, butter, salted beef and pork, which we imported from America amounted in 1860 to no less than 8,500,000*l.*, paid for in articles of British manufacture. The amount which we received from the United States, in articles of human food, was absolutely greater in 1860 than the whole value of our exports to that country, prior to our adoption of free trade.

IMPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES, 1860.

List of imports.

	VALUED AT
Raw Cotton	£30,069,306
Corn	6,866,147
Tobacco	1,181,182
Cheese	532,443
Bacon	424,566
Timber	414,052
Lard	388,004
Spermaceti Oil	362,142
Butter	347,459
Beef, Salted	347,439
Tallow	347,345
Oil Seed Cake	314,319
Skins and Furs	263,686
Hops	254,865
Spirits of Turpentine	213,917
Clover Seed	196,788
Hides	183,763
Resin	178,990
Salt Pork	£108,584
Caoutchouc	92,732
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	92,211
Turpentine	85,868
Rice	81,602
Clocks	64,888
Cigars	62,687
Hams	55,300
Tea	45,325
Logwood	41,481
Pearl and Pot Ashes	34,344
Whale Fins	34,244
Copper Ore	27,137
Bark for Tanners	24,841
Copper, Wrought	19,482
Tar	19,178
Caoutchouc Manufactures	14,222
Peruvian Bark	13,921

EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES, 1860.

	VALUED AT		VALUED AT
Cotton Manufactures	£4,534,136	Glass Manufactures	£67,078
Woollen „	4,084,693	Spirits	66,322
Iron	3,136,340	Copper, Wrought	64,342
Linen Manufactures	2,084,165	Stationery	44,053
Apparel, Slops, &c.	1,417,262	Machinery	42,238
Hardwares and Cutlery	1,054,908	Tin, Wrought	23,185
Tin Plates	1,018,536		
Earthenware	654,283		
Soda	526,806	Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	206,274
Silk Manufactures	463,420	Indigo	154,678
Coals, &c.	192,779	Gums, Lac Dye, &c.	94,486
Printed Books	140,941	Raw Silk	72,856
Drugs	125,627	Peruvian Bark	56,252
Leather	123,777	Hides	47,169
Salt	119,993	Cochineal	35,930
Empty Bags	104,873	Iron in Bars	34,466
Beer and Ale	100,375	Opium	30,893
Lead and Shot	88,531	Brandy	24,204
Plate and Jewellery	83,839	Wine	26,233
Painters' Colours	75,351	Argol	18,070
Linseed Oil	74,77	Bristles	16,793

Our export trade to the United States has increased as follows:—

DECLARED VALUE OF EXPORTS TO THE UNITED STATES.

YEAR.	AMOUNT.
1840	£5,283,020
1845	7,742,839
1850	14,362,976
1855	17,318,086
1860	22,907,681

Depression of this trade occasioned by the civil war in America.

It is lamentable to reflect that the bulk of this large and growing commerce was lost to us in 1861 by the miserable civil war which broke out between the Northern and Southern States. Our exports fell, in 1861, from nearly 23,000,000*l.* to little more than 9,000,000*l.*, with every prospect of further decline should the war continue. The declared value of our exports last year was as follows:—

To the Northern Ports	£8,399,986
To the Southern Ports	239,985
To the Pacific Ports	418,355
TOTAL	£9,058,326

Future prospects of the trade.

The important question for the British merchant at the present moment is, what will be the future of our commercial relations with the States? The answer must in a great measure depend upon the duration and results of the war. Looking, in the first place, to our export trade to America, it is most probable that the heavy losses, the severe depression, and the high taxation consequent on the struggle will prevent the Americans from becoming, for some time, large purchasers in our markets for any other articles than those of the first necessity. But the great territory, the large population, the industry, energy, enterprize, and elasticity of the American population will speedily enable them to recover from the effects of the war, whatever may be the conditions on which peace is restored; so that we shall ultimately, no doubt, find that the demand upon our market equals and even exceeds the total of the past.

Probable future position of the Americans as purchasers in our markets.

But then comes the question: How will America pay? The best answer to this, as regards the Northern States, is the fact that in their year of trouble, 1861, they sent us nearly 10,000,000*l.* worth of wheat and flour, or more than double the quantity they ever sent in any previous year. As regards the Southern States, the elasticity which they have already displayed in producing almost any quantity of cotton that might be required for the markets of the world, gives assurance that whatever may have been the temporary suffering occasioned by the war, the restoration of peace will enable them speedily to recover. It is, indeed, more than probable that these States, by the acquisition of greater independence, will be able to enter into the markets of Europe, as purchasers, to a larger extent than was possible whilst they were so largely dependent on the markets and finances of the North; and this could not fail to be advantageous to British commerce.

Their future system of taxation.

The question, however, with regard to these States is, By what system of taxation will they defray the expenses of the war in which they are engaged? Export duties are contrary to the genius of the United States, and are, indeed, prohibited by its constitution. The Southerners have always been opposed to Import duties; and one of the causes of the war is attributed to an attempt of the Northern States to protect their own manufacturing interests by placing a high tariff on imported articles. But, on the other hand, the landed proprietors of the Southern States, who, though comparatively small in number, are large in possession, must be interested in opposing direct taxation upon their property. If they do submit to it, and establish a system of free trade, whilst they may endure a temporary inconvenience they will, no doubt, ultimately bring their territory to a condition of unprecedented prosperity.

Probable commercial effects of the American War,

The opening up of New Orleans, Mobile, and Savannah to the importation of British goods in largely increased quantities, would, no doubt, be advantageous to British commerce. The trade of those great cotton marts has hitherto been practically limited to the exportation of that article; but there seems no reason why the supplies of the South and of the rapidly increasing states of the West

to open a direct trade with the

Southern and Western States;

should not go direct to these ports, instead of being increased in price to the consumer by a long and costly transport from New York.*

to open the Panama route more freely to commerce

Another advantage which England will probably obtain, when the disputes now prevailing in America are adjusted, will be increased trade with the States in the Pacific. At the present time our trade with California is unduly prejudiced by the policy of the United States Government, which has practically shut us out from the trade of her western States by denying British vessels running between New York and Aspinwall, and Panama and San Francisco, the privileges enjoyed by the American flag. That this is not only an injury to British commerce, but an injury to the States on the seaboard of the Pacific, no one can doubt. The Panama route ought to be free to all the world under all circumstances; and it is monstrous to exclude any nation from it under the pretext that the trade of the seaboard of the ocean is a "coasting trade." New York, at present, practically reserves to herself the trade with California by the adoption of this measure; but it may be confidently anticipated that no long time will elapse before a concession is made of this commerce to the principle of free trade.

with California

Free intercourse with California is the more important to us as our commerce with it has been increasing. We have sent to that State the following quantities of produce and manufactures, of which the largest proportion was cotton goods :—

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* In 1858 the value of the exports of native produce from New Orleans nearly equalled that of New York ; but the value of the imports was in very small proportion. The figures were :—

	EXPORTS.	IMPORTS.
NEW YORK	$89,031,741 . . .	$178,475,736
NEW ORLEANS . . .	88,270,224 . . .	19,586,033

EXPORTS TO CALIFORNIA.

YEAR.	AMOUNT.
1855	£336,699
1856	460,111
1857	451,500
1858	521,366
1859	459,622
1860	624,997

and British Columbia,

All this was paid for in gold; the only other importation, in 1860, being 3,600*l*. worth of silver ore. Our own recent discoveries of gold in Vancouver's Island and British Columbia increases the importance of a perfectly free system of trade across the Isthmus.*

and to render our industry less dependent on the supply of cotton from America.

It is probable that another good effect of the war in America will be to render British industry less dependent than it has been for many years past upon the supply of cotton from the United States. Practically, as already shown, our whole supply has hitherto been drawn from this quarter; but the outbreak of the war, and the stoppage of the supplies of cotton in consequence of the blockade of the Southern ports, in the latter part of 1861, has caused our merchants to pay increased attention to the necessity of developing new fields of supply. There is every reason to hope that the result will be to develop very rapidly the cultivation of the cotton plant in India;—thereby relieving us from the necessity of relying exclusively upon one country, and that a foreign power, for our supply of the article; introducing a competition, which will have the good effect of checking any undue rise in its price, and opening out new fields for our manufactures amongst the vast populations of Hindostan and adjacent countries.

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* A direct intercourse with these districts is, at the present time, regarded as of so much consequence, that all sorts of projects are on foot to secure it. A railway is talked of, but the distance to be traversed (nearly 3,000 miles) seems to render this impracticable. The British Columbia Overland Transit Company advertise that they will organize a perfect land transport train of horses and spring-carts, from Lake Superior to British Columbia, and hope to make the journey in twelve days. They propose to commence their operations this summer (1862).

Shipping employed between Great Britain and the United States.

The commerce between Great Britain and the United States employed, in 1860, nearly 4,000 vessels of more than 3,500,000 tons. The precise figures were as follow:—

	SHIPS.	TONS.
Entered	1,932	1,724,048
Cleared	2,000	1,804,046
TOTAL	3,932	3,528,094

Proportions of American and British shipping.

Of these the largest proportion were American ships:

COUNTRY.	ENTERED.		CLEARED.		TOTAL.	
	SHIPS.	TONNAGE.	SHIPS.	TONNAGE.	SHIPS.	TONNAGE.
British	613	488,181	629	522,678	1,242	1,010,859
United States	1,174	1,174,991	1,178	1,164,110	2,352	2,339,101
Other Countries	145	60,876	193	117,258	339	178,134
TOTAL	1,932	1,724,048	2,000	1,804,046	3,932	3,528,094

This question considered.

Although it appears from this that British commerce with the United States is in the hands of foreigners to the extent of more than two to one, yet, viewed practically, there is nothing in this circumstance which ought to occasion us any regret. The people of the United States are exporters of cotton, tobacco, corn, and other bulky articles which we consume. Under any condition of commerce it is natural that the vendor should send his goods to market in his own way. The Americans send their cotton, corn, &c. to our markets in their own ships, just as we send our manufactures to India, Australia, and China in our own ships. A farmer takes his cartload of hay to market in his own cart; and the American sends his cotton and corn to us in his own ship. It would be unnatural to suppose that it should be otherwise; and instead of regretting that American ships resort to our ports in such large numbers as they do, we ought to rejoice that they come here to trade with us, bringing articles that we require, and purchasing goods from us with which they may themselves trade with other markets to which they have access.

For it is to be observed that the American vessels which bring American produce to this country rarely leave our ports without cargo. There are some countries with which our trade is, unfortunately, quite one-sided. Our own North American provinces, for example, sent us, in 1860, 2,178 shiploads of their produce; but they only cleared out 1,522 ships from our ports, and of those no less than 600 ships, comprehending half the tonnage, were in ballast. On the other hand, the very small proportion of American vessels that clear out in ballast is remarkable. Of those which cleared in 1860, the proportion in ballast was not *one-tenth.*

	SHIPS.	TONNAGE.
Total United States' Ships Cleared	1,178	1,164,110
Of which Cleared in Ballast	105	93,867

Character of the American shipping trade.

This is to be largely accounted for by the system which prevails in the American shipping trade. An American shipowner knows the value of keeping his vessel constantly employed. He will, therefore, take cargo at any place for any place. If, when he has brought freight from New Orleans to England, he does not find a return freight from England to New Orleans, he is prepared to go in any other direction in which freight may be required. It is altogether wrong to speak of this as injurious to the interests of British shipping. It is of the very life and soul of commerce; the very essence of a sound system of international trade; and instead of looking with any jealousy upon this commerce, or regarding it as a rivalry, we ought to rejoice, as a manufacturing and exporting nation, that the Americans are in a position to come into our markets as purchasers and carriers of our manufactures and products to other regions where they are needed for consumption.

Our trade with CENTRAL AMERICA.

Our commerce with the countries which may be considered to form Central America, may be thus classified:—

COMMERCE WITH CENTRAL AMERICA, 1860.

STATES.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.
Mexico	£490,221	£538,949
Central America	224,909	196,091
New Granada	555,177	854,500
Venezuela	24,940	327,357

Central America.

Central America (or the Mosquito Country, as it is sometimes called) is the central portion of the long isthmus which unites North and South America; its boundaries being our own settlement of Belize, and the Mexican states upon the north, and the republic of New Granada on the south. This territory comprises Guatemala, Honduras, San Salvador, Nicaragua and Costa Rica, each being a "separate independent republic" under its own government. We trade on the Atlantic seaboard with Truxillo, and a number of small shipping-ports in the Gulf of Honduras. The settlement of Bluefields, claimed by the "King of the Mosquito territory," to whom we some years since made a present of a flag, is situated in Nicaragua, and it is at this part of the Panama Isthmus that the English have sought to establish a line of communication across it, either by a canal or railroad.

A proportion of our trade with the States of Central America is carried on from our West India dependencies and from our settlement at Belize (Honduras).

New Granada. With New Granada our principal trade is over the Isthmus of Panama, by railway of about thirty-five miles long, which a New York Company has provided from Chagres to Panama. We have also a trade with this country at the ports of Cartagena, Santa Marta, &c. Venezuela. With the state of Venezuela, of which we acknowledged the independence in 1834, we have been doing a gradually increasing trade. The country is rich in vegetable products, and it has some minerals. Panama hats. The straw hats, best known as Panama hats, come principally from this country. They have been long known to Europeans in the West Indies for their extreme lightness, cleanliness, and durability, and also for their efficiency in protecting the head from the heat of the sun. They formerly fetched immoderate prices in Jamaica and other British colonies: in some of which, first-rate Panama hats were sold retail at as much as a Spanish doubloon, or 5*l.* 6*s.* 8*d.* each. These hats have of late years become an article of commerce in England. Here they fetch about a guinea each in the shops; but these are fictitious prices, of course far above their intrinsic value. A number of Panama hats are sent from London to Germany, where the fashions are less opposed to their use than in London or in Paris.

Mexico. In Mexico, the chief ports traded with are Vera Cruz, Tampico, and Campeachy. Up to a recent period Illicit trade of Mexico. a very large portion of the trade of Mexico was illicit; and nearly the whole of the goods so introduced were paid for in the gold and silver of the country. Mexico, however, has of recent years adopted a somewhat better system in relation to trade; and, if the country was settled under a responsible government, it is possible that her commerce would greatly increase.

Imports from Mexico.

Cochineal and various sorts of woods form the principal proportion of the imports from Mexico. The Brazil wood, which is the largest article of Import, is much used to impart a red dye. This wood, it should be mentioned, does not derive its name from Brazil; on the contrary, that empire is supposed to have been so denominated from the quantities of the "Madera del Brasil" (as the Spaniards call it), which was observed by early navigators to abound upon its coasts. The mahogany we get from Vera Cruz and Tampico is not of first-rate quality; but the trade in this article at home is of such a character that quantity is more desired than quality in dealing with it. The cochineal insect is cultivated with more success on the plains of Mexico than anywhere else; and this article, from its hitherto high value and small compass, has been an important article of commerce. Whether it will continue so may be doubtful, seeing the advance made by chemists in the production of dyes. Jalap, which we derive almost exclusively from Mexico, takes its name from Xalappa (or Jalapa), a town in the interior of that country, and is brought to us in irregular round or pear-shaped masses. Its taste is extremely nauseous. It is a well-known and powerful medicine, but is not used in the arts. Vera Cruz is the best market for sarsaparilla, which is also grown in Honduras, Brazil, and Jamaica: the produce of each country having its own price. It is imported in bales. Vanelloes (or Vanilla) is the fruit of a species of vine which grows extensively in Mexico. It is principally used in preparing and mixing with chocolate, and is, on that account, largely exported from Mexico to Spain. In England, latterly, it has been used to flavour ices, tarts, &c. There are four sorts of vanelloes, differing in price and quality. The best comes from the village

Brazil wood.

Mahogany.

Cochineal.

Jalap.

Sarsaparilla.

Vanelloes.

Fustic.

of Zentilla. Fustic is the wood of a species of mulberry. It produces a yellow dye. The fustic of Cuba is more esteemed than that of the Spanish Main or Jamaica.

VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM THE STATES OF CENTRAL AMERICA, 1860.

ARTICLES.	MEXICO.	CENTRAL AMERICA.	NEW GRANADA.	VENEZUELA.
	£	£	£	£
Brazil Wood	172,060			
Mahogany	96,652	22,826		
Cochineal	67,384	19,220	142,825	
Nicaragua Wood	65,121	263	2,192	
Logwood	17,261	406		
Jalap	15,475			
Sarsaparilla	15,077	33	4,371	
Vanelloes	8,383			
Fustic	8,205	—	10,180	9,239
Copper	7,786	—	17,912	
Indigo	3,979	35,251	140,228	
Balsam of Peru	—	6,433		
Coffee	—	104,767		
Hides	—	13,691		
Peruvian Bark	—	—	100,184	
Divi-Divi	—	—	25,475	3,821
Straw Hats	—	—	4,694	8,250
Pearls	—	—	2,700	
Tobacco	—	—	36,972	
Tortoiseshell	—	—	4,272	

Exports to Mexico, &c.

Our export trade to Mexico has fluctuated very much of recent years. It amounted to nearly 930,000*l.* in 1856, which was the highest point it ever reached; but from this it has sunk to somewhere about half a million, which seems to be the average. The exports to Central America are, in the same way, fluctuating and decreasing; but those to New Granada show large and continuous increase, and have grown from about 219,000*l.* in 1846 (when they were first distinguished from the records of other states), to 515,000*l.* in 1856, and 854,500*l.* in 1860. This shows the value of the Panama route.

Character of the articles supplied.

The articles principally sent to these countries are our own manufactured goods of superior qualities. In addition to cottons and woollens, we send out to Mexico and New Granada (the latter being, no doubt, chiefly for California), very considerable quantities of silks both of English and Indian manufacture, fine linens, cutlery, wearing apparel, and plate. We also export large quantities of quicksilver, for use in the mines, &c. The trade, though subject to competition with the Americans, is no doubt profitable and might be extended. In fact, wherever there is gold to be had in return for goods, the commanding price of the great standard of value in Europe must always secure a profitable trade with those who can supply it.

The following is a tabular view of our exports to these states:—

VALUE OF OUR EXPORTS TO CENTRAL AMERICA, 1860.

ARTICLES.	MEXICO.	CENTRAL AMERICA.	NEW GRANADA.	VENEZUELA.
	£	£	£	£
Cotton Manufactures	252,886	100,244	531,219	224,157
Linen ,,	63,199	5,093	53,807	44,147
Woollen ,,	51,228	6,095	44,873	31,001
Silk ,,	17,068	2,033	30,075	1,451
Hardwares and Cutlery	16,447	8,159	22,613	3,986
Cotton Yarn	13,875	4,036		
Machinery	2,049	4,711	3,725	1,420
Iron and Steel	8,957	6,789	6,020	1,714
Apparel and Slops	8,132	10,508	50,673	2,956
Soap	—	4,461	4,363	
Earthenware	5,014	6,880	3,710	2,759
Beer and Ale	—	—	3,195	799
Glass	974	—	1,734	528
Coals	875	—	1,921	
Plate, &c.	773	—	16,385	
Quicksilver	61,905	194	20,119	
Raw Silk	8,678			
Indian Silks, &c.	2,684	8,536	6,228	
Wines and Spirits	—	753	1,170	478

Our trade with SOUTH AMERICA.

We now come to the countries of South America, on the coast of the Atlantic, with which we carry on a much larger trade, but from which our imports are of entirely different articles. The trade of these countries, BRAZIL, URUGUAY (Monte Video), and BUENOS AYRES,* has been largely cultivated of late years by our merchants, and has afforded them an increasing business. Our imports and exports to South America have increased as follows:—

Its rapid increase.

COUNTRY.	IMPORTS FROM.		EXPORTS TO.	
	1854.	1860.	1850.	1860.
Brazil	£2,083,589	£2,269,130	£2,544,837	£4,571,308
Uruguay	386,996	867,328	60,480	944,002
Buenos Ayres . .	1,285,186	1,101,428	848,800	1,820,935
TOTAL . .	£3,755,771	£4,237,886	£3,454,117	£7,336,245

If it had been possible to take back the imports to 1850, which we are prevented from doing in consequence of the form in which the official tables were then compiled, the result would, no doubt, have been even more remarkable. As it is, the account shows an increase of more than 100 per cent. upon our export trade to South America within a comparatively short period, and a total trade transacted of 11,500,000*l.* per annum.

The articles derived from these countries will be shown by the following table:—

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* Buenos Ayres, in 1852, separated from the Argentine Confederation, and formed a separate government for herself. In 1859, after the battle of Acepeda, a compact was formed by which she agreed to rejoin the Confederation. Her re-incorporation was delayed until the present year (1862), when she was declared to be at the head of the Argentine states.

IMPORTS FROM SOUTH AMERICA, 1860.

Imports.

ARTICLES.	BRAZIL.	URUGUAY.	BUENOS AYRES.
	£	£	£
Raw Cotton	561,949		
Sugar	517,412		
Hides	479,842	453,895	550,172
Caoutchouc	236,432		
Coffee	162,877		
Brazil Wood	61,648		
Rosewood	36,038		
Cocoa	31,322		
Cochineal	27,272		
Bones	21,297	64,531	43,499
Tallow	19,971	204,060	197,423
Isinglass	10,342		
Balsam Capivi	12,021		
Cigars and Tobacco	9,766	—	25,174
Brazil Nuts	9,039		
Tapioca	8,303		
Horns	6,612	11,737	5,768
Ipecacuanha	2,530		
Horsehair	2,374	28,502	58,221
Wool (Sheep's)	486	82,921	104,394
Copper	—	—	30,632
Skins and Furs	—	—	63,968

Brazil.

Her increasing prosperity.

Brazil, for many years past, has, under an established Government, been attaining great prosperity. Though the taxes are light, her finances show a continuous increase in the revenue, and recently a large excess of income over expenditure. Her debt is little more than one year's present income, and is chiefly held by natives. Her commercial policy has been liberal, and the consequence has been progressive development of her resources, and rapidly increasing wealth.

Her productions.

Brazil suffers, to some extent, from want of labour. The consequence has been a diminution of the production of articles, like sugar, requiring a large amount of work to promote their growth and manufacture; and a large increase in the production of other articles, like coffee, which are capable of more easy cultivation and manipulation. This is perhaps, less realized in the British than in the other commerce of Brazil; but it is the fact that whilst the export of sugar from the country scarcely exceeds in quantity what it amounted to twenty years ago, the export of coffee has increased a hundred per cent. This is particularly the case in the neighbourhood of Rio Janeiro, the capital, from whence most of the Brazilian coffee is derived. The sugar we get from this country comes from Bahia, and the cotton from Pernambuco.

Diamonds. Brazil appears to export very much less than she imports from Great Britain; but the fact is that the balance is more than made up in the form of diamonds and other precious gems, in the search for which hundreds of persons are employed, under the direction of the Government and otherwise. The exportation of diamonds being subject to severe restrictions, they are the subject of an illicit traffic, chiefly carried on at Bahia, in a desert part of which province the most productive diamond-ground in the world was discovered some years since, and is now worked. It is difficult to estimate the quantity of rough diamonds supplied by Brazil annually; but it probably is not less than 1,000,000*l*. It is to be remembered that diamonds are not only used as articles of jewellery. They are indispensable in many operations of art, for which purpose discoloured diamonds, and those not of good water, are generally used. The cameo and intaglio are brought to perfection by the use of the diamond, and it is also employed in cutting all descriptions of hard stones, seals, crystals, &c. Many diamonds are broken into powder in order to be used in diamond polishing.

Rosewood. The rosewood exported from Brazil is the best procurable, and is in the highest esteem of any wood amongst our cabinet and musical-instrument makers. It is the produce of a large tree, of which the supply appears to be limited.

Drugs. The province of Para, in Brazil, furnishes us with our largest supply of balsam of Copaiva. It comes here in small casks. The Ipecacuanha we import comes in bales. Both these articles are largely used in medicine. **Brazil nuts.** The nuts which Brazil sends us are the interior seed of the fruit of very large trees, which grow on the banks of the river Oronoco. The fruit is figured and described by Humboldt as "a spherical cone as big " as a man's head, having four cells, in each of which " are six or eight nuts." These nuts are irregular, triangular bodies, having a hard shell. The kernel is a firm, oily almond, of a pure white colour. It yields a large quantity of oil, well suited for lamps. These nuts are also to be found in our fruit markets.

Monte Video and Buenos Ayres. The Pampas of La Plata, and the fertile plains watered by the rivers Parana and Uruguay, feed those numerous herds of wild cattle, of which we receive such large quantities of the hides, bones, tallow, horns, hair, wool, grease, and skins from Buenos Ayres and Monte Video. These republics, torn to pieces for a long period by their internal discords, are now beginning to develop their great wealth. **Cattle.** Cattle of course constitute the chief property of the country. Some of them are consumed by the people, but the larger part are sent to slaughter-houses, where the flesh is dried in the sun, converted into jerked beef,* and exported to various parts of America, the hides, horns, and tallow coming mostly to us. Mules, sheep, and horses are also largely bred in the country. The mules are chiefly exported to Cuba, where that animal is in much request as a beast of burden.

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* "*Jerked,*" from the Peruvian "*Charqui,*" or "*dried.*" "Charqui" is the principal animal food of the lower classes in Peru. (*Vide* Prescott's Peru, vol. i. p. 141.)

Monte Video lying on the north and Buenos Ayres on the south side of the broad estuary of the river Plate, their internal trade is with different localities. Monte Video has gained on Buenos Ayres, in consequence chiefly of the superior character of its harbour; the shallowness of the water at the latter port obliging the vessels to lie far off the shore, and even their boats being obliged to load and unload into ox-carts in the water.

Exports to South America.

Our exports to these countries were as follows in 1860:—

EXPORTATIONS TO	BRAZIL.	URUGUAY.	BUENOS AYRES.
Home Productions	£4,446,776	£922,733	£1,782,447
Colonial and Foreign Productions	124,532	21,269	38,488
TOTAL	£4,571,308	£944,002	£1,820,935

The various articles exported may be thus classified:—

EXPORTS TO SOUTH AMERICA, 1860.

ARTICLES.	BRAZIL.	URUGUAY.	BUENOS AYRES.
	£	£	£
Cotton Manufactures	2,360,437	453,482	873,977
Woollen ,, ...	258,044	194,827	373,012
Iron Goods	300,950	28,092	69,175
Linen Manufactures	215,453	25,718	50,382
Hardwares and Cutlery	124,251	44,394	79,051
Butter	132,410		
Copper	91,412	—	3,990
Coals	89,922	12,884	11,577
Machinery	94,315	—	12,487
Beer and Ale	70,389	15,659	25,331
Apparel	68,676	46,174	111,865

EXPORTS TO SOUTH AMERICA, 1860 (*continued*).

ARTICLES.	BRAZIL.	URUGUAY.	BUENOS AYRES.
	£	£	£
Leather Manufactures	49,289	—	8,927
Earthenware	59,662	10,864	14,839
Glass Manufactures	34,541	—	13,904
Gunpowder	33,477	—	3,710
Lead and Shot	29,301		
Plate	29,403	—	6,374
Silk Manufactures	30,104	11,665	21,295
Soda	30,760		
Tin Plates	24,141	7,318	12,930
Painters' Colours	19,241	3,688	7,234
Linseed Oil	17,901	—	3,033
Musical Instruments	4,782		
Guns	3,206		
Stationery	—	—	5,946
Drugs	—	—	6,742

Character of our export trade to South America.

On more accounts than one this is an exceedingly interesting record. Not only does it show a very large increase in the demand for British goods, but more, perhaps, than in the case of any other country with which we trade, it shows a demand for articles of luxury, proving the advantages which our commerce confers upon the nations with which it is established, as well as on ourselves. Brazil is, indeed, in a condition of very remarkable prosperity; and as she has prospered, so has our trade with her increased. Next to the United States she is now our best customer on the American continent, and it is gratifying to find that her imports from Great Britain exhibit a large per-centage of excess over her imports from all the other countries of the world. It may be hoped that the other States of South America as they become tranquillised under settled governments will increase in that prosperity which enables them, even now, to deal so largely in our highest-class productions.

Looking at their wants and at our means of supplying them, there can be little question that in a few years, if the people will apply themselves to the development of their means, our trade with South America may afford as rich a harvest as any branch of British commerce—thus realizing the anticipations of Mr. Canning, when, nearly forty years ago, he "opened a new world to British industry," in recognising the independence of the States of South America.*

Shipping employed.

In 1860, 582 ships, with a tonnage of 171,323 tons, were employed in our trade with Central and South America. Of these nearly one-half were employed in the trade of the Brazils. The share of London in this trade was to the extent of 176 vessels of 62,181 tons; whilst that of Liverpool was 497 vessels of 178,915 tons. These countries having few vessels of their own, their trade is almost entirely carried on by British shipping. Some very large steamers, owned by an English company, were a short time since laid on as packet vessels from Liverpool to Lisbon, Madeira, St. Vincent, Pernambuco, Bahia, and Rio de Janeiro. They were understood to be subsidized by the Portuguese and Brazilian Governments; and they certainly afforded a very admirable agency for communication between all the ports most interested in the trade between Europe and South America. From whatsoever cause, the line, however, does not appear to have succeeded, and it has been discontinued. The ordinary trade is conducted in large sailing vessels.

Anglo-Brazilian Steam Packet Company.

Paraguay and Patagonia.

It is unnecessary to make more than passing mention of PARAGUAY and PATAGONIA, with which we have scarcely any commercial relations; as could, indeed, hardly be expected, the former being an inland and the latter a scarcely civilized territory. We have no direct exports to these countries, and we have only derived from the former some tobacco, and from the latter a supply of guano, varying in amount in different years. Upon the settlement of Paraguay, some years since, notifications were issued by the President, with a view to stimulate British commerce up the river; and since 1855 English steamers have navigated the Parana and Uruguay; Rosario, Salto, and Arijaba being the principal places traded with.

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* A submarine telegraph between Buenos Ayres and Monte Video is about to be laid, and railroads have been contracted for in both territories, and are in process of construction in that of Buenos Ayres.

Navigation of the South American rivers.

Our trade with the PACIFIC.

Passing round Cape Horn, we come, next, to the countries of the Pacific, CHILI and PERU, with which our commerce is more satisfactory. From Chili we receive large quantities of the precious metals, and of copper, in bars and ore. The exportation of the latter mineral has recently most largely increased, and in 1860 exceeded 2,000,000*l.* Chili also sends us some corn, and a fair supply of wools of different descriptions. From Peru, our principal import is guano (the excrement of wild sea-birds), which is found in vast quantities on the coast, and on some small unoccupied islands, amongst which may be named Lobos de Afuera, about fifty miles from the mainland.* In 1858 we imported guano from Peru to

Chili.

The guano trade of Peru.

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* Our first discovery of guano was made in 1843, on Ichaboe, an island of about a mile in circumference, two and a half or three miles from the mainland of Africa, lat. 26° 13′ S., long. 14° 15′ E., a rainless district, in which fresh water is very difficult to find. The first shipment was brought home by a Captain Parr, of the *Anne*, of Bristol, who is said to have been the first human being who set foot on the island, which was very difficult of approach, there being no harbour and a heavy surf. Captain Parr stated that "he could scarcely tread without setting his foot on birds, who took no notice of him whatever, except pecking at his feet, he being at the time barefooted. On a gun being fired, they merely fluttered about, making much noise." Ichaboe was immediately most largely resorted to, and as early as 1844 the whole of the guano on the island had been carried away, although the deposit was from thirty-five to thirty-eight feet deep. The Peruvian

the value of nearly 4,000,000*l.* In 1860 the importation was to the extent of something less than 1,500,000*l.*, still an immense amount to be paid for a manure. No guano that has ever been imported is at all equal to that from Peru, which arises from the circumstance that the coast on which it is found is rarely if ever subject to rainfall, which would destroy the usefulness of the manure by washing away the ammoniacal salts which constitute its value.* The trade in guano is a monopoly of the Peruvian Government, for whom Messrs. Anthony Gibbs and Sons, of London, have for many years acted as the agents.

The following were the

Imports from Chili and Peru.

IMPORTS FROM CHILI AND PERU IN 1860.

ARTICLES.	CHILI.	PERU.
	£	£
Copper Ore and Wrought Copper	2,015,683	85,704
Silver Ore	319,261	30,914
Nitre, Cubic	40,476	446,030
Alpaca and Llama Wool	58,443	263,635
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	21,925	145,555
Wheat and Flour	21,705	
Orchal	18,523	
Peruvian Bark	14,685	24,226
Mother of Pearl, Shells	9,815	
Cocoa	6,398	
Raw Cotton	4,030	9,518
Coffee	3,674	
Guano	—	1,469,508
Borax	—	16,565
Hides	—	14,401
Tin, and Tin Ore	—	42,825

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guano supply is said to be almost inexhaustible. The manure is described as covering all the small islands and cliffs of the coast. Guano was used as a manure in Peru before the country was visited by the Spaniards.

* It may be observed, in passing, that in this one fact consists the whole question, so long debated, of the value or inutility of what are called "Sewage

Amount of exports to Chili and Peru.

Our exports to these countries show a somewhat increasing trade. They were in—

YEAR.	CHILI.	PERU.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£
1840	1,334,873	799,991	2,134,864
1845	1,077,615	878,708	1,956,323
1850	1,156,266	845,639	2,001,905
1855	1,387,073	1,345,438	2,732,511
1860	1,737,929	1,428,172	3,166,101

Articles of our export trade.

The analytical table of exports will show that the population of the two countries require, to a very great extent, the same articles. Chili is the richer, Peru the more populous nation; but the real difference in the condition of the two nations is probably occasioned by the guano, which is now the largest export of Peru, being a commodity exported not by the people, but by the Government of the country; and the advantage derived from it as an article of commerce, going, accordingly, into the State revenue instead of being distributed amongst the population.

Manures." The excreta of the population of London, and our other large towns, is sent from the houses into sewers, mingled with large quantities of water from cisterns, &c. In the sewers it becomes still further mixed with many times its own quantity of water, from rain-fall and street drainage. In its passage to the outfall the sewage becomes churned and washed by this water, until it is deprived of almost every particle of the ammonia which constitutes its fertilizing property. All attempts which have hitherto been made to re-collect the excreta, and form a solid manure from it, have proved failures; and, in a liquid state, the sewage water itself appears to have little greater fertilizing power, when applied to land, than a corresponding amount of rain-fall or clean water applied by hose or jet. The only modes of making the sewage of towns available for the purposes of manure would be either to collect the excreta from the houses, or to convey it into some sort of tank or receptacle, independently of rain water, from whence it could be conveyed away in closed carts, as is done in Paris. But it is improbable that the inhabitants of London and other large towns in England, who have spent so much to obtain a perfect system of drainage from their houses to the great natural outfalls, will ever consent to resort to a system which restores the era of cesspools, and the pollution of the soil and of its waters, which were formerly so much complained of.

EXPORTS TO CHILI AND PERU, 1860.

ARTICLES.	CHILI.	PERU.
	£	£
Cotton Manufactures	1,022,640	801,430
Woollen ,,	173,333	220,633
Iron Goods	122,599	31,023
Linen Manufactures	53,095	70,418
Hardware and Cutlery	51,689	38,173
Coals	23,090	10,787
Apparel	22,198	26,300
Gunpowder	20,539	
Machinery	16,281	15,370
Beer and Ale	16,698	13,969
Cotton Yarn	16,411	
Leather and Harness	13,701	10,562
Empty Bags	12,367	6,835
Glass Manufactures	12,509	7,131
Copper Manufactures	11,690	9,908
Silk Manufactures	9,184	9,562
Drugs	8,885	8,149
Earthenware	8,853	24,829
Painters' Colours	8,077	
Bricks	4,690	
Soap and Candles	3,732	8,542
Stationery	3,468	2,154
Furniture	2,822	
Soda	2,750	
Plate and Jewellery	2,713	862
Tin Plates	2,441	3,166
Musical Instruments	1,848	2,652
Bees' Wax	—	11,895

Ports.

The commerce of Chili is principally carried on at Valparaiso, which is the most central depôt for the productions of the country. Caldera and Coquimbo are also considerable places of export. A trade of some amount is carried on by muleteers, across the Cordilleras, and supplies of European goods are thus indirectly obtained by the Chilians from Buenos Ayres; but, in 1858, this trade did not amount to more than one-twentieth of that carried on by sea. The import trade of Peru is chiefly conducted at Callao, which is the port of Lima, the capital. Lima, in the days of the Spanish occupation, was the grand entrepôt for the trade of all the west coast of South America; but this is now ended. The guano, which is now the chief article of export from Peru,* is obtained direct from the Chincha islands, and therefore the export trade of Callao only amounts to about one-fourth of its import.

Our trade with Bolivia.

Our trade with the small States of Bolivia and Ecuador, although limited, demands a passing notice. The former republic has, of late years, sent us, directly, a considerable supply of copper ore and regulus. The supply has increased as follows:—

Copper ore.

Copper Imported from Bolivia.

YEAR.	TONS.	VALUE.
1856	1,129	£18,086
1857	1,569	32,344
1858	1,898	34,931
1859	3,531	110,515
1860	5,239	175,797

Silver.

Bolivia also exports a quantity of silver, and some gold, chiefly obtained from the mines of Potosi, and estimated to amount in value to about 2,000,000 Spanish dollars per annum. She is possessed of some guano beds; but the quality of the Bolivian guano is very inferior to that of the Peruvian. In regard to exports, we send nothing direct to Bolivia, except a little quicksilver for use in her mines; but the people derive supplies of European commodities from Valparaiso, Callao, and Panama.

Guano.

With Ecuador we did a trade in 1860 amounting to nearly 200,000*l.*, our chief imports and exports being—

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* The whole commercial exports of Peru in 1859 were valued at 16,700,000 Spanish dollars, of which the guano was estimated at 8,500,000. Llama and Alpaca wool is rapidly becoming a considerable item of Peruvian export. We are indebted for the use made of this article to Mr. Salt, of Saltaire, near Bradford, who first applied it in manufactures. "Alpacas" now form a very important class of woollen goods.

Trade with Ecuador.

TRADE WITH ECUADOR, 1860.

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Cocoa	£73,744	Cottons	£48,218
Orchal	23,610	Hardware and Iron	7,696
Caoutchouc	3,241	Linens and Woollens	5,406
Bark and Sarsaparilla	611	Earthenware	1,777
Other Articles	5,797	Silks, Wine, Pepper, &c.	2,122

Precious metals.

This republic also exports precious metals from the mines near Quito, but their development has been small of late in consequence of the distracted state of the country. Guayaquil is the port with which trade is carried on, for which its situation, depth of water, and other circumstances well adapt it.

Trade with Foreign West India islands.

Having spoken of the trade of the continent, it is next necessary to speak of our trade with the islands of America. The foreign islands with which we trade consist of the republic of Haïti, Cuba and Porto Rico, St. Thomas and the other Danish West India islands, &c.

HAÏTI.

Our trade with Haïti is larger than might be anticipated from the circumstances of that republic It will be recollected that there was a revolution in December, 1858, when the Emperor Faustin Soulouque fled, and General Fabre Geffrard proclaimed a republic, became president, and, as his first act of authority, re-named the capital, "Port au Prince," "Port républicain." The largest proportion of the Haïtian trade is done with the United States; but England has about a third of the whole. In 1860 our trade with Haïti was:—

Imports		Exports	
Imports	£123,147	Exports	£417,072

of which the items were as follow:—

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Mahogany	£84,473	Cotton Goods	£274,345
Logwood	17,964	Linens	76,223
Lignum Vitæ	6,260	Woollens	8,722
Satin Wood	3,593	Hardware and Iron	13,011
Fustic	2,896	Earthenware	10,215
Coffee	2,930	Apparel	5,464
Cotton	626	Soap	3,529
Other Articles	21,424	Foreign Produce, &c.	4,133

The Haïtians, it will be observed, send us scarcely anything but their woods.

CUBA and PORTO RICO.

Of a very different character was our trade with the Spanish islands of CUBA and PORTO RICO. In 1860 our imports from those islands amounted to 3,288,106*l.*, and our exports to 1,609,696*l.*: total, 4,897,802*l.* This trade is of much more considerable value than might have been expected, and, as we shall hereafter see, does not fall very far short of our trade with all our own British possessions in the West Indies put together. The different articles of import and export were:—

Imports and exports.

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Sugar and Molasses	£2,622,361	Cotton Goods	£462,909
Cigars and Tobacco	291,417	Linen	353,855
Copper Ore	243,893	Iron	171,904
Mahogany, &c.	65,174	Machinery	98,231
Cedar Wood	20,742	Apparel and Slops	74,296
Rum	11,513	Hardwares	73,877
Fustic	3,969	Rice	70,533
Coffee	322	Coals	60,276
Other Articles	28,725	Earthenware	38,263
		Beer and Ale	33,459
		Copper	30,400
		Glass Manufactures	15,398

The imports show the great development of these rich and fertile islands; and the exports illustrate the advance which Cuba is making in the construction of railways, for which such considerable quantities of iron, machinery, and coals are required. The great wealth of Cuba gives reason to hope that our trade

Prospects of this trade.

with her may undergo a large increase. Hitherto, the United States have done the largest share of the business of Cuba, not only in consequence of their proximity, but in consequence of their being able to take the sugars of the island, and to supply in return the flour, salt fish, timber, &c. required for the island use. There seems some reason to hope that this trade may in a large measure be diverted. The increasing demand for sugar in Europe, and the excellent quality of that received from Cuba, must stimulate the exports of the island. The tobacco of Cuba we are always prepared to take, and the blockade of the southern ports of the United States ought greatly to stimulate this branch of commerce. The mines in Cuba are chiefly in the hands of British capitalists, who are understood to be working them successfully, which must give England an increased interest in the trade of the island; whilst the difficulties existing in America, the blockade of the Southern ports, with which Cuba carried on such extensive intercourse, and the political spirit which the Americans have evinced, as regards Cuba herself (a spirit which the Spanish population of the island have deeply resented), must be calculated to bring England and Cuba more and more into commercial contact.

The sugar trade.

Our own equalization of the sugar duties will do much, no doubt, to stimulate commerce with possessions which for a long period we were practically debarred from trading with. The immense increase of importation which that equalization has occasioned is shown by the following account of our general

IMPORTS FROM CUBA AND PORTO RICO.

YEAR.	AMOUNT.
1840	£514,782
1845	695,379
1850	849,278
1855	2,332,753
1860	3,288,116

The equalization question considered.

It may be, however, objected that in deriving so large a proportion of our sugar from Cuba and Porto Rico, we are doing injustice and injury to our own colonies, and making no distinction between slave labour and free. On this head the following table will be interesting. It shows the quantity of sugar imported into this country in different years, and proves that the equalization of the sugar duties has not diminished the import from our own possessions, but has simply enabled us to obtain that additional quantity from foreign countries, which our own colonies and possessions cannot supply, but which the wants of our population and of our commerce render it necessary that we should acquire.

SUGAR IMPORTED.

YEAR.	FROM BRITISH POSSESSIONS.	FROM FOREIGN COUNTRIES.	TOTAL.
	CWTS.	CWTS.	CWTS.
1840	3,592,092	2,315	3,594,407
1844	4,129,345	98	4,129,443
1846	4,617,509	602,739	5,220,248
1850	5,183,097	908,395	6,091,492
1854	5,589,467	2,439,291	8,028,758
1860	5,431,912	3,385,365	8,817,277

It therefore appears that instead of 3,500,000 cwts. received from all countries in 1840, we now are able to obtain a supply of nearly 9,000,000 cwts. of sugar; of which 5,500,000 cwts. is obtained from our own possessions. The result, in fact, of the equalization has been to benefit the consumer, the merchant, and the shipowner, whilst stimulating the sugar cultivation in our own possessions, and increasing by many millions both our colonial and foreign trade.

Our supply of sugar in 1860 was drawn from the following countries:—

Countries which supply our sugar.

COUNTRY.	IMPORTED.	VALUE.
	CWTS.	£
British West India Islands	2,491,120	3,364,730
Cuba	1,382,398	1,998,051
Mauritius	1,163,732	1,537,218
British Guiana	884,490	1,202,403
British East Indies	760,875	978,347
France	547,669	688,561
Brazil	432,943	517,412
Philippine Islands	381,809	471,194
Porto Rico	262,713	381,355
Java	157,742	229,728
Holland	112,984	147,785
Dutch Guiana	60,304	82,047
Siam	46,803	64,773
Other Parts	131,695	174,257
TOTAL	8,817,277	£11,837,861

Our largest foreign supply, therefore, comes now from Cuba. The rapid development of her trade with us in this article is shown by the fact that, in 1856, Cuba only sent us 736,165 cwts., so that she has nearly doubled her supply in the short space of four years.

Shipping employed in the trade.

The largest proportion of the trade with Cuba and the foreign West India Islands is done in London. London employed in it in 1860, 205 ships of 52,984 tons, Liverpool only employing 117 ships of 27,940 tons. The larger proportion of the ships engaged in this trade are foreign, probably American vessels, which take a cargo from the United States to Cuba, and obtain freight of sugar and tobacco from thence to England. In the trade with Porto Rico (which has not the same amount of intercourse with the United States), it should be observed that the greater proportion of the tonnage employed is British.

Trade with the FRENCH,

Owing to differential duties on shipping, our direct trade with the French possessions in the West Indies (Guadaloupe, Martinique, &c.), amounts to NIL. We send them some small supplies of coals, but receive nothing from them worthy record. With the Dutch possessions (St. Martin, St. Eustatius, and Curaçoa) our trade is larger. We receive their produce (chiefly divi-divi and fustic) to the extent of about 9,000*l.* a year; and we sent them cottons, linens, woollens, earthenware, and hardware to the extent, in 1860, of 43,000*l.* With Dutch Guiana we have a sugar trade amounting to between 80,000*l.* and 90,000*l.* annually, and we supply them in return with British manufactures amounting to about 25,000*l.* a year. But our chief trade with the smaller islands is with the Danish possession of St. Thomas, which is the coaling station of the Royal Mail Steam Packets, and which has consequently become an entrepôt for British goods intended for consumption in the other islands. In 1860, our export trade to St. Thomas amounted to 678,138*l.*; cottons, linens, woollens, hardwares, apparel, iron, and coals being the principal articles embraced in the total. St. Thomas is a small island, and it has, of course, very little of its own to send us in return; but as imports from it the Board of Trade record the following articles, all of which, no doubt, came to St. Thomas from the Spanish Main and Panama, and were re-transhipped there for England by some commission agent:—

Dutch, and Danish Islands.

St. Thomas.

Pearls	£34,770
Platina	5,279
Straw Hats	4,398
Jewels, Unset	2,060

It should be observed that the pearl fishery is carried on to a large extent in the neighbourhood of the Isthmus of Panama. In 1851 a vessel arrived in London with a cargo of no less than 2,104,000 pearl shells, to be used, no doubt, as mother-of-pearl. This is said to have been the largest importation of the sort

Importation of pearl.

then known. These shells are extensively used in the manufacture of buttons, knife-handles, inlaid boxes, toys, &c.

Trade with the WestCoast of Africa.

The association which there is between the trade of the continent of America and the West Indies, and the trade of the western coast of Africa, may excuse a reference to the latter trade in this place. The trade of England with the west coast of Africa is, we rejoice to believe, an altered trade. We have been able of late years to find on the western coast of Africa a commodity of great value, for which we can deal with the chiefs and people on the coast without having any direct concern in that abominable traffic in mankind which is still carried on in that region by some other nations.

Palm oil.

Although palm oil was known to us half a century ago, the trade in it received no impulse until about ten years since, when some large candle and soap manufacturers were wise enough to see in this article an admirable substitute for more expensive ingredients. The consequence was that a demand for palm oil arose so rapidly as far to exceed the means of supply. Gradually, however, the trade has been developed wherever the palm-tree grows along the coast of Guinea, and we now receive this commodity annually to the value of upwards of a million and a half.

Mode in which this trade is conducted.

The trade with the western coast of Africa has always had its chief seat at Liverpool. The merchants of that port at the present time freight steam-vessels with goods for the African coast, and send them out to trade. Up to a very recent period the whole trade was conducted, by barter, on the ships' decks. The native chiefs came off and bargained for the goods displayed under their eyes, promising so many casks of oil for a few cowries,* brass buttons, beads, or calicoes. The goods which the chiefs received for their oil were usually taken away from the ship at once; but as the time at which the oil could be shipped depended upon a variety of circumstances, the vessels in the trade were sometimes compelled to lie off the coast for very considerable periods before their cargoes were completed. Upon the duration of this detention mainly depended the success of the speculation—the material cost of the oil consisting in the cost of freight. Recently, however, all this has undergone considerable alteration, the principal houses having appointed agents on the coast, who purchase the oil in anticipation of the arrival of the vessel by which it is to be shipped.

Uses of palm oil.

In England palm oil has fluctuated exceedingly in price, according to supply and demand. The purposes for which it is being used are, however, becoming more numerous, and, consequently, the demand for it is likely to prove more steady, and the supply more regular and more abundant. Combined with other materials it is largely used for lubricating the axles of railway carriages, and most of our best soaps now contain a greater or less proportion of this oil.

Character of the trade.

From the character of this trade it is very difficult to give any real account of the value of the exports and imports. The intrinsic value of the cowries and beads, with which we trade with the chiefs, amounts to very little, whilst the oil imported generally acquires a value in the market far beyond its intrinsic worth at the place of shipment. The following is the official account of the trade:—

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* We import cowrie-shells from the Maldives expressly for this trade. It should be observed that cowries are used as a small coin in many parts of Southern Asia, as well as on the coast of Guinea. From 3,000 to 4,000 cowries go to a rupee in Bengal.

TRADE WITH AFRICA, 1860.

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT
Palm Oil	£1,684,532
Elephants' Teeth	35,672
Barwood	8,939
Camwood*	7,370
Raw Cotton	6,094
Ebony	3,797
Guano	2,590
Bees' Wax	2,134

EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Cotton Goods	£464,661
Guns and Gunpowder	161,782
Tobacco	74,192
Rum	68,351
Hardwares and Cutlery	50,314
Wood Staves and Casks	56,538
Iron	25,147
Apparel, &c.	24,158
Cotton Yarn	23,227
Brass Manufactures	20,820
British Spirits	15,695
Silk Manufactures	14,421
Beads, Home and Foreign	12,900
Cowries	14,585
Salt	7,636
Soap	4,079
Copper	8,129

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* Camwood—a red wood, used in dyeing, is brought chiefly from Sierra Leone.

The character of the trade upon this coast is significantly attested by the lists of exports. The guns and gunpowder, tobacco, rum, spirits, beads, cowries, &c. bespeak a traffic carried on in anything but the spirit in which we must all desire to see a large commerce conducted. Let us hope that the time may come when the trade with Western Africa may assume all the characteristics of a legitimate commerce. It has made great advances: there is still room for improvement. And if Europeans once get over the stigma which the slave trade has brought upon them, there is ample room for commerce in hitherto unexplored regions of the African continent. That continent is variously estimated to contain from seventy to one hundred millions of human beings. It is impossible not to be struck with the following account given by Mr. Livingstone of one of the numerous attempts made by the natives to trade with his exploring party in a district removed from the demoralized region of the coast:—

Trade with the interior of Africa.

"Throughout this region the women are almost entirely naked, their gowns being a patch of cloth frightfully narrow with no flounces. *Nothing could exceed the eagerness with which they offered to purchase strips of calico of an inferior description.* They were delighted at getting pieces about two feet long in exchange for a fowl and a basket of upwards of twenty pounds of meal. Many of the women, with true maternal feeling, held up their little naked babies, entreating us to sell only a little rag for them. The fire, they say, is their only clothing by night, and the little ones derive heat by clinging closely to their parents. Instead of a skin or cloth to carry their babies in, the women plait a belt, about four inches broad, of the inner bark of a tree, and this, hung like a soldier's belt, enables them to support the child by placing it on their side in a sitting position."

Our trade with Morocco.

With Morocco a direct trade is now transacted to the extent of 280,000*l.* imports, and 214,000*l.* exports; total, say half a million annually. Some English goods, however, intended for this country go to Gibraltar, which keeps up a constant communication with Tangiers, Tetuan, and El Araish, receiving from those places large supplies of fruit, vegetables, cattle, and other articles of provision for the garrison and population. Mogadore is the port with which our direct trade is conducted, it being the most convenient for trade with the capital and the interior. The staples of Mogadore are gums and almonds; but we have lately been deriving from this country considerable supplies of beans and other commodities. Up to 1856 our trade with Morocco was crippled by a series of monopolies, and by excessive duties laid upon the principal articles of commerce, both exported and imported. In December, 1856, a treaty, for which we are indebted to our consul-general, Mr. Drummond Hay, was concluded at Tangiers between her Britannic Majesty and the Sultan of Morocco, by which most of the monopolies were abolished and moderate rates

Port of Mogadore.

The treaty of 1856.

of duty established; British merchants were at the same time relieved from many oppressive and annoying restrictions, and important concessions were made to commerce. Our export trade has consequently been increasing in amount.

TRADE WITH MOROCCO.

YEAR.	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
1840	———	£14,222
1850	———	31,799
1854	£231,593	92,556
1857	344,301	190,097
1860	280,424	214,510

And it may be hoped that the recent financial operations which have led to closer relations between this country and Morocco, may further extend the commercial intercourse between the two countries.

Imports and exports, Morocco.

The following list shows the principal articles of our trade with Morocco in 1860:—

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Corn (Beans and Maize)	£119,487	Cotton Goods	£134,324
Almonds	34,828	Sugar	16,642
Wool, Sheep's	32,161	Copper	3,650
Bees' Wax	20,219	Iron	2,785
Olive Oil	19,831	Linen Goods	1,399
Gum	18,520	Woollen ,,	1,179
Ostrich Feathers	17,551	Colonial and other Produce.	43,086

Trade with the Barbary coast.

With the other States on the African shore of the Mediterranean, formerly known as the Barbary States, but now described separately as Algiers, Tunis, and Tripoli, we have, comparatively, very little trade. The business of Algiers is carried on with Marseilles; and, except coals, iron, and telegraphic wire, we have sent little or nothing to Algiers for many years, and have only received from it some supplies of copper ore, which have grown small by degrees, until, in 1860, they only amounted

Algeria.

to 131 tons, valued at 1,572*l*. It remains to be seen what the Treaty of Commerce with France may do for us in regard to trade with Algeria. By the eighteenth clause, "the arrangements of the Treaty "are applicable to Algeria, both for the exportation "of her produce, and the importation of British "goods." But the great difficulty in regard to trade with Algeria is a differential duty imposed in the form of port-dues on vessels entering Algiers and Oran. The duty on foreign vessels amounts to as much as four francs per ton, whilst French vessels scarcely pay anything; and practically this excludes our trading with Algeria, except in French vessels. Our exports are, therefore, limited to the supply of such articles as the Government requires for railway, telegraphic, and like purposes; and our imports to the receipt of such copper ore as they choose to send us to smelt.

TUNIS, on whose territory is the site of Carthage, that great emporium of the ancient world, and former mistress of the seas, still carries on some commerce. Caravans start from Tunis for Timbuctoo and the interior of Africa, carrying cottons, linens, hardware, spices, &c., and bringing back gold dust, ivory, ostrich feathers, and drugs. The principal trade of Tunis with Europe is directed to Marseilles; but some business is also carried on between Malta and Gibraltar and the ports of Tunis. Our direct trade is very small. We send out some coals, iron, indigo, and other articles; for which we receive olive oil. With TRIPOLI it is still smaller; indeed, but for the indirect trade through our Mediterranean possessions, British commerce with this territory might be described as *nil*. One cause of this may be the state of the harbours on the coast, which have, in the course of time, so silted up, that any other than Tunis. Tripoli.

small vessels find it difficult to enter them. There is reason to think, however, that commerce with Tunis and Tripoli might be cultivated with advantage. Both countries are rich in articles which we require, and both have commercial relations with populations able to consume many of our leading manufactures more largely than they do. A trade in the ports along this coast, skilfully conducted, would probably prove as productive as the trade which has been established along the western coast of Africa. The mulberry is largely cultivated in Tripoli, and a large quantity of silk is sent from thence to Marseilles for the looms of Lyons.

In order to complete the account of our foreign trade, it is necessary to say a few words as to trade with some portions of the globe with which commerce is only, at this moment, beginning to develop itself.

Trade with JAPAN.

With the JAPANESE EMPIRE we only commenced to trade direct in 1859,[*] when we sent out about 3,000*l.* worth of goods, chiefly perfumery, soap, and candles, and received back about 100,000*l.* worth, in the form of raw silk, galls, soy, and Japan-ware.[†] In 1860 and 1861 our trade was extended. We received in 1860 goods to the amount of 167,500*l.* from Japan, and in 1861 we sent them our own manufactures to the extent of 43,100*l.*

Anticipations respecting it.

It is probable that with some experience of the character of the articles most in demand in Japan, we shall be able to establish an increased traffic with that country; and the visit of the native ambassadors, who attended the opening of our Exhibition in the current year, may extend in Japan the knowledge of the means in our possession of contributing to the comfort and happiness of their population.

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[*] The Treaty of Jeddo was signed 26th August, 1858.

[†] The Japan-ware, which appears to be universal in the country from which we have given it its name, is obtained by the use of the milky-juice of the Rhus Vernix, or varnish-tree. Our own lacquered ware is for ordinary purposes of superior utility, and it is of course cheaper.

Question as to the suitability of Japanese exports for European consumption.

At the same time, we must not be too sanguine as to the development of trade with the people of these islands. Industrious, ingenious, and wealthy, as they no doubt are, it is questionable how far they are able to send us commodities in any abundance, that are calculated for general European consumption. Japan, so far as we are acquainted with it, is a dear country. It raises, at present, little more than it consumes: and the prices of its products are governed by that circumstance. The tea which we imported from Japan in 1860, was not considered well calculated for our market, and did not realize a price sufficient to induce speculation in the article. It is probable, indeed, that our acquired taste for Chinese teas of particular descriptions will prevent our speedily adopting other sorts. Besides this, it is to be borne in mind that the Japanese are a people hitherto unacquainted with commerce, and, indeed, supposed to be absolutely antagonistic to it. Time, therefore, and opportunity will probably be required to enable us to introduce our manufactures into general use among the Japanese.

SIAM.

SIAM is regarded by many commercial men as a fruitful scene of future commerce. Although a country of limited extent, the people are exceedingly enterprising, and they exhibit considerable skill in the arts, especially in ship building, navigation, and the use of various descriptions of machinery. For some years we have been receiving produce of various descriptions from Siam; the chief article being sugar, which is largely manufactured in that

Mechanical skill of its people.

Its produce.

Sugar.

country, not only for use, but for exportation, and of which we obtained, in 1860, about 50,000 cwts.

Exports to Siam.

Our direct export trade to Siam can scarcely be said to have commenced before 1860, when we sent out about 13,500*l.* worth of cotton goods, machinery, iron, cotton yarn, and other articles. But Siam has for some years had a considerable indirect trade with England through our settlement at Singapore, with which its dealings in 1856 amounted to nearly 300,000*l.* Bankok is the principal port traded with; and besides sugar, pepper, rice, indigo, hides, sapan wood, &c., the junks which trade between Siam and Singapore often bring gold dust, elephants' teeth, bees' wax, tin, &c., showing the character of the trade which it might be possible to extend.

Trade of Siam with Singapore.

Intercourse between Siam and China.

It should be noticed that between Siam and China there has long existed the largest commerce yet established between any two Eastern nations. The Siamese employ a very large number of Chinese labourers, whom they induce to emigrate to their country—a remarkable proof of the advanced condition of a nation which, whilst it is regarded in Europe as almost barbarous, knows how to employ the industry of the people of the Celestial Empire itself.*

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* A story current in City circles, which was taken to show the ignorance of the Siamese, might, with more reasonableness, have been employed to demonstrate our own want of mercantile judgment and enterprise. In passing through Gracechurch-street, it was said that the Siamese envoys, who came to this country in 1860, entered a button-shop, in which they astonished the shopkeeper by purchasing of him all his old stock of brass buttons, of whatsoever description, at almost any price he chose to ask for them. It may seem at first sight ridiculous enough that choice should be made of brass buttons as an article of commerce, especially considering the very little respect we ourselves pay to the article, the very name of which, amongst ourselves, is a measure of contempt. But when we come to consider the character of the commodity—its utility, its durability, its appearance, and its cheapness—we can scarcely fail to be struck with the ready judgment displayed by these Siamese, in making a large purchase of the article on the very first occasion on which it was brought under their notice. It is evident, in this case, that it was not novelty these people looked to, but utility; and it really is doubtful which ought to occasion us the most surprise, that the uncivilized people were struck with the advantages of a brass button, or that we, the

With the MALAY peninsula and COCHIN CHINA, our whole trade is conducted from Singapore, and so is the larger proportion of our commerce with the CELEBES. The inhabitants of the latter islands are the carriers of the Indian Archipelago. They own at least 1,000 prahus, which are all employed in commerce, the people abhorring piracy, and defending themselves against the Malays with desperate valour whenever attacked by the piratical vessels of that race. The people of the Celebes leave their islands at the beginning of the Eastern monsoon, and proceed westward as far as Singapore. Their outward cargoes consist of gold dust, tortoiseshell, coffee, scented woods, rice, and edible birds' nests and sea slugs for Chinese epicures. They purchase considerable quantities of our cotton goods, and contrive to diffuse British manufactures through the islands of the Eastern seas. The Dutch have been for many years endeavouring to establish their supremacy over the population of Celebes, but they are only able to establish themselves upon the island; and the population has occasionally risen against them and placed them in considerable peril. The Dutch have recently made Macassar a free port, in the hope of diverting some part of the trade of Singapore, but the experiment has not yet met with any remarkable success. We sent to Celebes, in 1860, about 8,000*l.* worth of goods, but received no direct imports in return.

The CELEBES.

Carrying trade.

Cargoes.

The Dutch in the Celebes.

With the settlements of the Dutch in JAVA, where they have established the centre of their commerce with the Indian Archipelago, our direct trade has been very rapidly increasing, as the following return will show:—

JAVA.

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civilized people—the manufacturers and merchants of the world—had never thought of introducing such an article into countries where it must obviously be of so much utility.

EXPORTS TO JAVA.

1840	£349,521
1844	378,918
1850	507,499
1854	641,912
1858	836,062
1860	1,425,724

Its sugar production.

This increase of our trade with Java indicates that our manufactures are permeating the numerous Dutch possessions in the Archipelago. To some extent, also, it results, as in the case of Cuba, from our being able to receive the sugars produced in large quantities in Java.

Imports and exports.

The details of our commerce with Java are :—

IMPORTS.

	VALUED AT
Sugar	£229,728
Rice	63,666
Caoutchouc	20,380
Rattan Canes	3,446
Hides	3,116
Coffee	2,562
Pepper	1,886
Nutmegs	510

FROM SUMATRA.

Sago	£13,674
Rice	1,102
Canes	131
Cassia Lignea	110

EXPORTS.

	VALUED AT
Cotton Goods	£1,071,025
Machinery	77,369
Cotton Yarn	71,069
Iron	37,715
Woollen Goods	26,219
Earthenware	22,900
Copper	20,668
Hardware	16,963
Linens	8,194
Beer and Ale	7,634
Wine	5,502
Glass Manufactures	5,443
Coals	4,642
Apparel	2,563
Tin Plates	1,982
General Merchandize	25,402

Increased trade between Java and Holland.

It may be observed, that the trade of Java with Holland herself, always important, has now become of very great consequence. The private trade between Holland and her dependency is now unrestricted; the Netherlands' Trading Company being only employed as the agent of the Government in carrying the produce of the Crown lands to Europe. Holland received from Java, in 1859, produce to the value of nearly 8,000,000*l.*, chiefly consisting of sugar, which she refined and sent for consumption into the interior of Germany. The export trade of Holland to Java is not, however, more than 3,000,000*l.*, or about double the export trade of England to Java: a fact which demonstrates the great advantage we have over the Dutch as shippers of articles in general consumption.

The principal trade of Java is carried on at Batavia, from whence an intercourse is maintained with most of the islands of the Eastern seas.* The trade of Java with Singapore is considerable; but the largest proportion of the British trade is now transacted direct by British merchants settled at Batavia.

SUMATRA.

Unpenetrated by European commerce.

The large and populous island of SUMATRA, on which the Dutch have several coast settlements, is traded with through Java and Singapore. But Sumatra can scarcely yet be said to have felt the influence of European commerce. The Dutch have failed to penetrate this important and interesting island; the interior of which is almost unknown, although it is said to contain fifteen different nations, of which six have made considerable progress in civilization. It will

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* The Dutch colonial possessions in Asia, with their geographical areas, are as follows:—

	SQUARE MILES.		SQUARE MILES.
Java	50,000	Timor	13,500
Madura	2,700	Bali	3,000
Sumatra	160,000	Lombock	2,500
Billeton	2,250	Sumbawa	8,800
Borneo	200,000	Mangeray	500
Celebes	70,000	Junduna	3,500
Amboyna	1,320	Semao	200
Ternate	32	Billeta Island . . .	2,250

Several of these islands have no commercial importance. Timor is remarkable for its picturesque and romantic scenery. On Borneo the Dutch only have some settlements along the coast; although they claim the whole country. Cloves are the production of Amboyna, to which island the Dutch have practically restricted the cultivation by rooting up the clove and nutmeg trees from other islands on which they naturally grew. The exportation, however, does not increase, the passion for spices in Europe having abated, or rather, spices having been superseded by coffee and by the general use of tobacco.

not be forgotten, that in 1811, Java and Sumatra were taken possession of and became British dependencies. When Java was restored to the Dutch by the treaty of London in 1814, a British settlement, under Sir Stamford Raffles, was established at Bencoolen, in Sumatra, by the East India Company, chiefly with a view to the cultivation of the pepper-plant. The settlement was abandoned; but the intercourse thus opened with the people of Sumatra is said to have been more beneficial to them than any they have had either before or since with Europeans; and when England restored Sumatra to the Dutch in 1824, under the treaty by which Holland recognised our settlement at Singapore, the restoration of Dutch rule was considered a serious grievance by the native chiefs. Sumatra supplies Singapore with many articles of produce, and the natives take our cotton manufactures in return. It is to be wished that our intercourse with this island could be extended.

The British settlement at Bencoolen.

Its effect on trade with Sumatra.

Next to Holland, Spain has the largest possessions in the Eastern Archipelago; and it is said by Malte Brun, in his account of the PHILIPPINE ISLANDS, that their inhabitants are the only people in the Eastern seas who have improved in civilization from European intercourse. Whilst, in the Western Ocean, Spain always strove for an exclusive commercial monopoly for the Crown, it is remarkable, that in the Philippine Islands she has left commerce free to the colonists. During the 300 years Spain has possessed these islands, they have been fairly governed; no check has been imposed on their colonization; liberal grants have been made of unappropriated lands; slavery has never been introduced or sanctioned; native usages have been respected, and a moderate taxation has always left industry untrammelled. The consequences have been no less marked than the

The PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

Their government by Spain.

contrast. Whilst a cruel and illiberal policy justly lost Spain all her territories in America, the wise and prudent administration of her Eastern possession has produced a contented and prosperous dependency.

Differential duties on shipping.

The error of Spain in the government of the Philippine Islands has been the same into which England fell in dealing with her colonies; namely, attempting to make their trade subservient to domestic purposes, by levying differential rates or duties in favour of ships belonging to the mother country. This system of legislation is, at the present time, fettering the commerce of the Philippines. Productive as the islands are, and well situated as they are for the supply of the increasing populations of Eastern countries, the Philippines might do a great trade in tropical produce, if their commerce was unrestricted. Sir John Bowring, in a report upon these islands, speaks of them as the natural sources of the supply of sugar, tobacco, coffee, &c. for Australia.

Their injurious effect on the trade of the islands.

The absurdity of the differential duties levied on shipping in the Philippines, is illustrated by the fact that the European commodities supplied to these islands are almost exclusively of English manufacture. The differential duties accordingly fall upon the inhabitants of the islands themselves, either in the form of additional cost for articles imported in British ships, or of the extra charge of freight and transhipment upon such as are received in Spanish bottoms from Singapore. The quantity of British goods imported into the Philippines from the latter entrepôt is said to be in excess of our direct exportation; but the latter amounts to a considerable item. In 1860, our trade with the Philippines was—

Imports . . .	£603,329	Exports . .	£679,320

The principal articles were as follows :—

The Philippines, imports and exports.

Imports.	Valued at	Exports.	Valued at
Sugar	£471,194	Cotton Goods	£523,370
Hemp	88,801	Iron	18,940
Mother-of-Pearl	12,916	Woollen Goods	18,131
Sapan Wood	7,788	Linen ,,	15,144
Cigars	7,590	Cotton Yarn	14,462
Hides	2,444	Machinery	12,760
Tortoiseshell	2,018	Copper	11,397
Indigo	1,841	Steam Engines	9,021
		Hardwares	7,652
		Apparel	3,254
		Glass	3,161
		Coals	2,798
		Earthenware	1,585
		Leather	1,304
		Colonial Produce, &c.	5,085

The Manilla trade

Manilla, or more properly its suburb, Bidondo, with which it communicates by a bridge, is the port with which our trade is principally conducted. The hemp we get from this port is highly appreciated. The cheroots made of the island tobacco have been for some time in large demand; though in 1859 and 1860 the supply of tobacco to England from Manilla was very much below the average. Manilla communicates with the rest of this large group of islands (of which there are said to be nearly 1,200) by small craft. Many of the islands are capable of greater development. There is no doubt of their mineral wealth. Gold is found amongst the mountains, and, with proper machinery, copper of very superior quality might be raised in abundance. The islands also afford excellent timber; and horned cattle, introduced by the Spaniards, have thriven admirably. It may be of interest to mention, that Manilla was a British possession from 1762 to 1764. It was taken from Spain in the former year, and ransomed in the latter for a payment of a million sterling.

SARAWAK.

A company has been established in London, under the title of the Borneo Company, for promoting a trade with Sarawak, the territory ceded by the Sultan of Brunei to Sir James Brooke, and now governed by him as "Rajah." The imports of this company in 1860 were to the extent of 12,500*l.*, the principal articles imported being sago, ore of antimony, and pepper. We send no direct exports to Borneo; but Sir James Brooke has established a steam communication between Sarawak and Singapore, by which the Dyaks, and the Chinese imported into that territory, are supplied with what they require.

London, the great market for Eastern products.

London presents the great market for Eastern products, and it is to the enterprise of London that we must look for the opening out of that great trade with the Eastern Archipelago, which, at no distant period, will probably become no inconsiderable portion of the commerce of the world. At the present time British trade to the eastward of the Straits of Malacca is quite in an infant state; but if we consider the extent of the countries to be traded with, their vast populations, the variety of their productions, the suitability of our manufactures to their climate and their wants, the large interest we have in developing their resources, the extent of our shipping, and the growth of our own Australian and other colonies, little doubt can exist that the next quarter of a century will witness fields of commerce opened up in the Eastern world far greater than we have ever known before.

CHAPTER VII.

TRADE WITH INDIA AND THE COLONIES.

Trade of England with India and the East.

THE trade of England with our Indian Empire and possessions in the East is almost as exclusively a trade of the Port of London as the trade of America is a trade of Liverpool. Of 702 vessels, of 530,378 tons, entered inwards in 1860 from the East Indies and Singapore, 634, of 437,034 tons, came to London, leaving only sixty-eight vessels for the trade of all the other ports of the United Kingdom.

Why it centres in London.

The monopoly of the trade with the East, formerly vested in the East India Company, is of course the primary cause of that trade now centring itself in our Port. It would scarcely, however, have remained with us to the extent it has, if London did not afford the best market in the world for Eastern commodities. For silks, spices, indigo, and other productions of India, London affords the largest number, not only of British, but of foreign purchasers, and therefore she continues to enjoy the largest share of Eastern trade.

Great value of this trade.

The value of our trade with the East Indies is shown by the fact that in 1860 our exports thereto amounted to nearly EIGHTEEN millions, of which seventeen millions consisted of produce and manufactures of the United Kingdom. Extraordinary as it may appear, almost the whole of this enormous trade has been the growth of the last twenty-five years. We are in the

Its recent growth.

habit of thinking of the old East India Company as a gigantic combination of merchants; but the fact is that the amount of their annual exportations to India was always inconsiderable. The Company, in fact, throughout the period of their monopoly absolutely set themselves against an export trade from Great Britain to India! So lately as 13th January, 1809, they declared, in a letter addressed by their Chairman and Deputy Chairman to the Board of Control, that there was practically no market for English goods in India:—

The East India Company opposed to an export trade to India.

Their declaration on this subject, A.D. 1809.

"The small demand," they wrote, "for foreign commodities in India results from the nature of the Indian people, their climate and their usages. The articles of first necessity their own country furnishes more abundantly and more cheaply than it is possible for Europe to supply them. The labour of the great body of the common people only enables them to subsist on rice, and to wear a slight covering of cotton cloth; they, therefore, *can purchase none of the superfluities we offer them.* The comparatively few in better circumstances, restricted, like the rest, by numerous religious and civil customs, of which all are remarkably tenacious, find few of our commodities to their taste; and their climate, so dissimilar to ours, renders many of them unsuitable to their use; so that a commerce between them and us cannot proceed far upon the principle of supplying mutual wants. Hence, except woollens, in a very limited degree, for mantles in the cold season, and metals, on a scale also very limited, to be worked up by their own artisans for the few utensils they need, hardly any of our staple commodities find a vent among the Indians; the other exports which Europe sends to India being chiefly consumed by the European population there, and some of the descendants of the early Portuguese settlers; all of whom, taken collectively, form but a small body, in view to any question of national commerce." *

They repeated this expression of their opinion in 1813, when they declared, by a resolution passed at

A.D. 1813.

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* Papers published by authority of the East India Company, 1813, p. 21.

a general Court of the Company, "that no large or "sudden addition can be made to the amount of "British exports to India." They declared that the Company had suffered by attempting to extend this branch of their trade; and in order to show that it could not be carried on prosperously, they added that their warehouses at home were glutted with Indian goods, for which there was no demand.

The exports of the Company.

During the whole period of the Company's monopoly, our exports to India were consequently very limited. They amounted to as follows:—

East India Company's Exports to India.

1724	(average of	10 years	ending)	£92,410
1741	ditto	8 years	„	157,944
1748	ditto	7 years	„	188,176
1773	ditto	3 years	„	489,803
1780				386,152

Chiefly military stores and ammunition.

These totals included all the military stores, ammunition, &c. sent to India for the purposes of the Company's troops. The value of these amounted, no doubt, to a very large proportion of the whole, so that it can scarce be said that up to 1780 we had any real export trade to India at all.

Company's exports, 1790–2.

About 1790 the exports of the Company showed an increase; but this was owing to two causes. First, there was a largely increased demand in England for tea, the consumption of which was widely extending itself, and for which the Chinese were willing to receive British commodities. Second, the Company, anticipating that their charter, which expired in 1793, might not be renewed, were engaged during the preceding years in glutting the Indian markets with such commodities as they thought they could export with any advantage; so that, if the trade was opened, they might, as far as possible, prevent successful trading by other merchants. The amount of the

Company's exports in 1792 was stated at 1,031,262*l.* Of this 553,146*l.* was stated to be the cost of European goods sent to Canton, the merchandize sent to India being—

Their total exports to the East, A.D. 1792.

To Bengal	£96,277
To Bombay	65,740
To Madras	60,015
Total	£222,032

This total may be taken as about the value of the Company's exports of merchandise to India at that period; and may be contrasted with the items at p. 364.

The Company's account of their exports, A.D. 1793.

When the East India Company's charter came under the consideration of Parliament in 1793, the Company presented accounts to show that their sales of European goods in India were all conducted at *a loss!* By this account, woollens, copper, lead, iron, steel, and japanned goods appear to have been all the articles of export. They had never attempted a trade in any other European articles whatever. Parliament, in renewing the charter, now made a species of provision for the trade of private individuals with India. It was enacted that all his Majesty's subjects should be permitted to export any article of British produce to India, in the Company's ships; and the Company were obliged annually to appropriate 3,000 tons of shipping for the use of private traders, at a freight of 5*l.* outwards in time of peace, and 15*l.* homewards.*

Provision made by Parliament for private trade in the Company's ships.

The privilege thus extended to private traders was not satisfactory to our own merchants. Few British traders were inclined to carry on a competition with the East India Company in their own

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* At the present time (1862) the freight outwards to India for dead weight is 17*s.* 6*d.* per ton: admeasurement about 40*s.*: homewards it varies from 2*l.* 10*s.* to 5*l.*, according to the article.

Advantage taken of this privilege.

vessels. But British residents in India (many of them officers of the Company) largely availed themselves of the privilege; and soon began to complain that the freight afforded them was not large enough; and that the Company frequently disappointed them, made inconvenient distributions of their goods in different vessels, and otherwise deranged their plans of commerce.

Incidents which led to a large development of the export trade.

One of the first efforts of these merchants in India was to endeavour to induce Parliament to allow them to employ vessels built in India, of teak wood, for the export of goods from India to England. The Company would not consent to any such infringement of their privileges; but an accident in 1795 occasioned a large trade to arise in vessels of this class. The great price of corn in England having caused vast distress at home, it was resolved by the East India Company to import a very large quantity of rice from India. Having no sufficient tonnage in which to carry on the importation, they ordered it to be shipped in vessels freighted on the spot; and in order that they might get this freight at the lowest price they added a permission to carry to India a return cargo of goods for account of the owners. In consequence, a number of teak vessels, built in India, for the first time sailed into the Thames. The result of the speculation was very remarkable, and almost a retribution on the Company. Before their rice ships arrived the price of corn in England had moderated, and the Company's rice, imported at heavy freights, turned out a bad speculation. On the other hand, the owners of the Indian ships returned to India, carrying cargoes of "French wines, cutlery, "looking glasses, window glass, wine glasses, and "other ornamental articles of glass, Manchester goods, "printed linens, silks, and cotton hosiery, gold and "silver thread, iron in bars, lead in pigs, tin in "blocks, copper in sheets, copper pans, broad cloths, "long and broad ells, camlets," and other articles, scarcely any one of which the Honourable Company had ever previously thought it worth while to export. Whilst the Company suffered, vast profits were made by the Indian merchants.

The Company's tonnage used by their own officers.

From this period to 1813, when the Company's exclusive privilege of trade was put an end to, the East India Company's trade with India (both export and import) suffered, though in a most unexpected manner, from the effects of the system of which Parliament had permitted the introduction in 1793. Although general merchants would not take advantage of the facilities which were afforded by the private trade tonnage, the officers and servants of the Company saw a great opportunity of making profits by using the 3,000 tons of shipping which the Company were annually compelled to allot to private traders. The captains of the East India Company's vessels, and other officers in their employ, began therefore to trade upon their own account. They were not exposed to the difficulties and discouragements which a private trader would find in competing with the Company; on the contrary, in many cases, as is obvious, the Company's own officers were able to trade in the Company's own vessels at superior advantage to the Company themselves! Thus, whilst the Company complained that they were annually trading with India at a loss, many of their own servants were trading in their own ships at enormous profits; indeed, at this moment, there are large estates and splendid mansions in the most fertile districts of England, owned by the descendants of shrewd and farsighted men, who, as captains of the East India Company's vessels, made their fortunes by competing with the Company for their own trade in their own ships.*

The East India trade thrown open, A.D. 1814.

The trade to India was thrown open by Act of Parliament on the 10th April, 1814. In that year the value of the exports of Great Britain to countries east of the Cape of Good Hope (excepting China) was—

By the East India Company	£826,558
By private traders	1,048,132
Total	£1,874,690

Rapid increase of the trade.

In 1817 the account was—

By the East India Company	£638,382
By private traders	2,750,333
Total	£3,388,715

In 1828—

By the East India Company	£488,601
By private traders	3,979,072
Total	£4,467,673

The private traders thus rapidly developed our export trade to the East, whilst the East India Company's trade almost as rapidly declined. In more recent years the trade has progressed as follows:—

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* In addition to the public tonnage, the commanders and officers of the Company's ships were also allowed to ship goods, under certain restrictions, to an amount of tonnage prescribed according to their rank. This was called the "Privilege Trade." Each commander was allowed thirty-eight tons, the chief officer eight, the second officer six, the surgeon six, and so on down to the carpenter, boatswain, and gunner, who were allowed one ton each. Besides this, it was customary to allow the commander and officers an additional quantity of thirty tons as "extra indulgence," to be stowed in parts of the ship where the Company's cargo was not stowed. These privileges extended to the China trade; and the Company's charges on "privilege tea" being much less than on private trade tea, at a period when the duties and charges on tea were excessively high, immense profits were made by officers in the Company's service who brought home tea from China. It is not long since a descendant of one of these gentlemen, holding an estate in the West of England, was so powerful as to be able to return three members for one county. I is scarcely necessary to add that they all sat on the Protectionist side of the House of Commons.

TRADE WITH THE BRITISH EAST INDIES.

YEAR.	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
1840	——	£6,023,192
1845	——	6,703,778
1850	——	8,022,665
1855	£12,668,732	10,353,475
1860	15,106,595	17,683,669

This wonderful increase the effect of a free trade.

This is, indeed, a wonderful increase; and, certainly, if any argument were needed to show the value of a free system of trade over a monopoly, it could not be better illustrated than by our trade with India. The great Company which had the whole trade of India exclusively in its own hands for nearly two centuries, failed to extend our exports to that nation; whilst under a free system that trade has risen, in a quarter of a century, in the wonderful ratio of progress thus recorded.

Internal obstacles to trade in India.

Want of means of internal transport.

Land-tax.

Transport dues.

Export duties.

Differential duties.

It is to be observed, moreover, that this trade has increased in spite of every internal obstacle. Up to a very recent period there have been no means of internal transit for merchandise in India; for even the navigation of its splendid rivers can scarcely have been said to be open to commerce. Besides this, the government of India has been conducted on principles most antagonistic to the development of trade. The people have been oppressed by a system of taxation calculated to prevent their cultivation of the soil. Internal duties have been levied on the transport of goods. Almost every article of export from India has been subjected to a tax; and, more than all, up to a comparatively recent period, we ourselves practically prevented the development of our own commerce with our own greatest possession, by insisting on a scale of differential duties on sugar and other articles of East Indian produce, in order to favour the sugar growers in the West Indian Islands.

The increase of our trade with India is no doubt very much due to the removal of some of these restrictions; especially the duty with which sugar was burdened; a duty which had the practical effect of preventing the planter from making any attempt to improve the cultivation of the cane or the manufacture of the crop.

Growing taste in India for British fabrics.

Another cause of the increase has, no doubt, also been the growing taste in India for productions of British manufacture. The East India Company would have had us believe that the cotton fabrics of India never could be rivalled by those of England. They failed entirely to take into account the character of our home manufacture, the advantage afforded by our machinery both in the form and cost of production, and the love of novelty, which influences every people in whatever condition of life.

Development of the market for our cotton manufactures.

No sooner did private traders commence sending cotton goods to India than they found an admirable market for them; and the result has proved to be that, without superseding native manufactures, India has become one of the best and most extensive markets in the world for the cotton goods of England; whilst England promises to become the best market in the world for the raw cotton grown in India. In the whole history of commerce probably nothing can be shown so remarkable as the development of such an exchange of products in so short a period as only a quarter of a century. We received from India in 1860 all the raw cotton they could send us, amounting in value to 3,339,000*l.*; and we sent them cotton manufactured goods in return to the extent of no less than 9,164,000*l.*

The progress of our trade with India restricted by pernicious legislation.

Considering the vast population of India, the improvements now making in the means of internal communication—the general tranquillity and settlement of the country—and our own interest in developing its resources, it might be anticipated that the growing trade between Great Britain and her Indian Empire would extend itself in the next ten years almost without limit. No doubt it will do so, if misgovernment, which has so long been the bane of India, does not check the progress which commerce seeks to make. It has, however, to be noticed that, in 1859, Mr. James Wilson, who went out from England to India as Financial Secretary, on the abolition of the East India Company, sought to provide for the deficient revenue of India (a revenue exhausted by wars and by the high salaries paid to officials) by an imposition of duties, amounting to 20 per cent. *ad valorem*, on articles of British manufacture. The argument which Mr. Wilson used to reconcile the people of British India to such import duties was the desirability of promoting their native manufactures. The fallacy of such an argument is proved by the facts. For a number of years past the population of British India have been showing a gradual preference for British goods—have been taking them in increasing quantities, and have been sending us their raw materials, in improved and improving shape, in order to enable us to manufacture articles suited for their markets. At the moment that the trade, thus commenced, reaches a vast amount, a legislator steps in and tells the people that they shall prefer that which they do not prefer, and shall be driven to manufacture for themselves at higher rates than they can purchase the same class of goods made for them by others. This most pernicious attempt to interfere with trade, were it persisted in, would, no doubt, be equally injurious to both countries. It would prevent the people of India from receiving our cotton goods, which they prefer, and it would prevent our receiving their raw cotton, which they would require for their own manufacture, although they might more profit-

Mr. Wilson's import duties on British manufactures.

ably send it to us. It is to be hoped, however, that such monstrous legislation will not be persisted in.

Our imports from India.

The following list contains the items of our import trade from the East Indies (exclusive of Singapore and Ceylon) in 1860:—

IMPORTS FROM INDIA, 1860.

	VALUED AT		VALUED AT
Raw Cotton	£3,339,076	Seed Oil	£47,591
Indigo	2,220,119	Horns	44,974
Linseed and Flax Seed	1,493,039	Cutch	43,681
Sugar	939,026	Lac Dye	38,026
Rice	801,938	Train Oil	36,368
Wool	699,861	Turmeric	34,807
Jute	652,677	Nutmegs	34,339
Saltpetre	649,505	Tallow	31,731
Hides	631,642	Rum	27,927
Rape Seed	461,013	Cardamons	27,015
Teak	303,600	Bees'-Wax	26,451
Tea	230,064	Ginger	24,058
Coffee	224,959	Madder and Madder Root	23,133
Tin	193,186	Poppy Seeds	17,538
Cocoa-Nut Oil	173,995	Hemp, undressed	16,550
Shellac	163,347	Borax	13,061
Silk Manufactures	146,052	Clover	11,633
Coir Rope and Twine	112,576	Mace	9,626
Goat Skins	109,991	Mustard Seed	8,824
Oils, unenumerated	94,860	Olibanum	6,744
Elephants' Teeth	87,118	Oil Nuts	6,413
Raw and Waste Silk	84,441	Senna	5,944
Castor Oil	81,735	Gum Arabic	3,082
Safflower	79,015	Cassia Lignea	1,447
Pepper	76,044	Goats' Hair Manufactures	700
Cotton Piece Goods	59,402	Cinnamon	695
Sheepskins	51,872	Wheat	488
Caoutchouc	49,541		

Cotton.

Its increased growth in India.

Raw cotton, of which in the days of the East India Company we received next to none from British India, now stands at the head of the list of articles imported.* The growth of this trade has been most rapid, as the following table shows:—

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* The manufacture of cotton has been carried on in India from the most remote antiquity. It is mentioned by Herodotus that "in India there are wild trees which produce a sort of wool, superior to that of sheep, and that the natives dress themselves in cloth made of it." Similar statements are made by other ancient writers.

QUANTITIES OF RAW COTTON IMPORTED FROM THE EAST INDIES.

1835	41,429,011 lb.
1840	77,011,839 „
1845	58,437,426 „
1850	118,872,742 „
1855	143,486,672 „
1860	202,041,026 „

Objections to East India cotton.

An objection is made to East India cotton by our manufacturers on the score of quality. They cannot, it is said, spin it into the finer descriptions of thread. There is reason, however, to hope for improvement in the cultivation of the plant in India, now that our cotton market is likely to be so largely dependent on the supply from that empire; for there can be no doubt that, if the war between the Federal and Confederate States is long continued, our principal supply of cotton must be drawn from our Indian territories. Great Britain may be expected to reap a double advantage from that circumstance. She will afford profitable employment to the countless population of her Indian empire, and will, therefore, contribute to the contentment and prosperity of the natives; and she will no longer be dependent, as she has been for so many years, upon one source of supply of the article most essential to her own industry. Besides this, it may be anticipated that the colonization of the interior of India will be promoted by the settlement of Europeans, taking there their capital and skill with a view to promote the cotton cultivation.

Prospects of this trade.

Indigo.

Its cultivation

The cultivation of Indigo has for some years been extending itself in Bengal. The culture and use of the plant was known to the ancients, and indigo was brought from India to Europe prior to the discovery of the route to India by the Cape of Good Hope. It was formerly used to give a more brilliant tone to the dye produced by woad, but gradually it has entirely

and use.

superseded the latter. It was not, however, until late in the last century that Bengal sent any very considerable quantities of indigo to England. A number of Europeans then began to engage in the manufacture (which requires but little capital); and from that period Bengal has been the chief source of the supply of indigo to every nation of the world. Of 77,000 cwts. imported in 1860, 66,000 came from British India. The Bengal indigo, especially that classed by importers as "Bengal blue," is most highly appreciated in the European market. Then follow Bengal "violet" and "copper" indigoes. After these rank "Oudes" and "Madras." It should be observed that the culture of the indigo plant is very precarious, and that, although the consumption varies very little, the prices of the article in the London market sometimes vary very much. At the commencement of the present year, 1862, in consequence of the failure of the crop in Bengal in 1861 (when the smallest quantity was produced for forty years), prices are reported by the indigo brokers to have reached "extremely high rates."

Quantities and qualities imported from Bengal.

Varying prices of indigo.

East India Sugar.

Up to 1836 differential duties prevailed on sugars cultivated in the East and West Indies. In 1835, whilst we imported 3,500,000 cwts. from the West, we only imported 100,000 cwts. from the East Indies. Upon the equalization of the duties the cultivation in the East Indies rapidly improved; and in the year after (1846), we received from the East Indies nearly 1,500,000 cwts. This supply has not been maintained since the reduction of the duties on foreign sugars in 1854; the quality of East Indian sugars being inferior to those of Cuba and Porto Rico, which have come so largely into consumption.

Rice.

Rice, which is the principal article of food amongst the Eastern nations, forms, with us, only a substitute for other grains, and is consequently imported in greater or smaller quantities, according to the excess or deficiency of our own cereals. In consequence, however, of the reduction of duties, which were formerly most excessive, on this article, rice has come into more general consumption than was at one time the case in England; and in consequence new sources of supply have of late years been found in connexion with our Eastern trade. Those sources are the districts now included in British India on the east side of the Bay of Bengal, the principal shipping ports being Akyab, Rangoon, Bassein, and Moulmein.* It was only in 1854 that we began to receive supplies of rice from this district; but it has since proved itself capable of sending us any quantity that may be required. In 1858 the importation amounted to no less than 3,500,000 cwts. It is probable that the civil war in America will be of advantage to this, as well as to other trades. Hitherto, the rice of Carolina has obtained a very much higher price in our market than any description of Indian rice; but that trade being cut off, it appears, from the trade circulars of 1861, that "the cleaning trade has received a great "impetus, and the East India cleaned rice has in con-"sequence been required to fill up the hiatus." Large quantities of cleaned Patna and other East Indian rices were actually shipped during 1861 from London and Liverpool to the Northern States of America. It will obviously be for the interest of the shippers in India to send us improved qualities of rice to supply the place of the Carolina; and if they can do so in the next few years, it is not improbable that the East Indian will supersede the United States' rice in the European market, especially seeing the unlimited supply of the former in comparison with the latter.

Its supply from Burmah.

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* The teak wood received from India is also from Moulmein.

Our imports of rice.

Our imports of rice in 1860 were—

COUNTRIES.	CWTS.	VALUE.
		£
From the British East Indies	1,314,811	852,929
,, Java	97,744	63,666
,, the United States	69,932	81,602
,, China	23,520	13,376
,, other parts	18,856	11,535
TOTAL	1,524,863	£1,023,108

So that India now sends us by far the largest proportion of all the rice imported into England.

Our exports to India.

Turning to our exports to India, we find them increasing in every successive year from 1852 to 1859, when they reached a total of nearly 21,000,000*l*. The annual progress is worth noting.

1852	£6,483,627
1853	7,324,147
1854	9,620,710
1855	10,353,475
1856	11,024,518
1857	12,191,960
1858	17,394,400
1859	20,782,853

Their recent decline, and the cause.

From this great total, chiefly, no doubt, in consequence of Mr. James Wilson's contemplated measures of taxation, the exports fell—

1860	£17,683,669
1861	16,412,090—*

a decline which shows the dangerous and even pernicious effects of interfering in any way with the

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* In 1861, the exports to the respective presidencies were, for the first time, distinguished in the government tables. They were—

To Bengal	£9,111,867
To Bombay	6,182,082
To Madras	1,118,141
	£16,412,090

ordinary current of trade.* If our commerce with India, however, is allowed to be unfettered, there is the best reason for believing that, in the next decennial period, the increase will be far greater than during the last. The natives evidence the strongest desire to use European goods. Computed upon the population of India, our exports only amount to 1*s.* 7¼*d.* per head. South America, in proportion to its population, took from us, in 1860, more than seven times the value of British productions exported to India in the same year; and the United States, notwithstanding protective duties, took over eight times that amount. The increase of import between 1850 and 1860 was 136 per cent. If the import in India is only 100 per cent. during the next ten years, the amount taken in 1870, although it will equal forty millions, will still be very inadequate to the *per capita* consumption of British productions by other nations. It may be anticipated, however, from the rate at which India is progressing, that the increase of consumption (if unchecked by legislation) will be very much greater than is here indicated.

Prospects of this trade.

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* The heavy decline of 1861 upon 1859, which was chiefly in the demand for manufactured cottons, so greatly alarmed the Bombay Government, that they thought it necessary to institute an inquiry into its causes. Colonel Baird Smith was accordingly appointed to proceed to the North-West districts, and to report upon their commercial condition. As this officer had previously been appointed to inquire into the causes of the famine in those provinces, it was, no doubt, hoped and expected by many persons in authority in Bengal, that he would solely attribute to the famine the falling off in the consumption of British articles. Colonel Baird Smith, however, very honestly concluded his report by attributing the causes of the decline to the high prices caused by high customs duties. Although very guarded in expression, in order evidently to avoid giving offence to high authorities, he makes his views tolerably apparent in the following passage :—
"Every reduction in the price brings a new stratum of society into the class of "consumers, and the benefit of high prices, such as have occasionally ruled of late "years, is temporary and accidental. I doubt if permanent expansion be compatible with prices materially above the present rates, and having this doubt, "I sincerely rejoice in the financial policy which will in time *relieve the Manchester "goods trade from the pressure of Customs duties greater than are required for "revenue only, as such relief will assuredly be followed by a permanent addition to "the present consumers, which, while benefiting the trade, will amply compensate "the public revenue for the sacrifice made.*"

Probably 1870 will see the exports of England to India amounting to not less than seventy millions of money annually.

List of articles exported.

The following is the list of the principal items of export:—

EXPORTS TO INDIA, 1860.

	VALUED AT
Cotton Goods	£9,164,196
Iron and Steel	2,010,599
Cotton Yarn	1,609,062
Copper	949,783
Beer and Ale	566,646
Machinery	366,435
Steam Engines	259,221
Woollen Fabrics	264,818
Hardwares and Cutlery	181,741
Apparel and Haberdashery	155,436
Stationery	122,893
Glass Manufactures	111,466
Coals	88,402
Salt	72,228
Linen Goods	62,308
Spelter	56,755
Earthenware and Porcelain	52,256
Preserved Provisions	49,217
Printed Books	49,157
Umbrellas and Parasols	48,685
Drugs	34,707
Saddlery and Harness	33,027
Telegraphic Wire	31,567
Painters' Colours	30,679

	VALUED AT
Leather	£26,774
Pickles and Sauces	26,679
Lead and Shot	23,190
Tin Plates	14,703

FOREIGN AND COLONIAL PRODUCTS.

Wood, Sawn	103,378
Wine	75,939
Cotton Yarn	75,222
Spelter	61,136
Glass Beads and Bugles	53,413
Cochineal	49,354
Copper	46,846
Cotton Goods	41,100
Plated Wire	30,242
Steel	28,361
Iron	27,170
Quicksilver	17,926
Brandy	10,181
Paper	9,010
Copper Wire	6,511
Woollen Goods	5,786
Fancy Glass	2,328

Vast amount of our cotton fabrics consumed in India.

The vast amount to which our cotton manufactures are taken by the native population will not fail to strike the reader. Upwards of NINE MILLIONS of manufactured cottons, and upwards of a MILLION and a HALF of yarn. Our imports of cottons from India amount to less than 60,000*l*. Yet this is the country of which the East India Company told us that they did not require any articles of this description, being able to make everything for themselves! So much for monopoly in trade. The Honourable Company tried to force upon the people of India British woollen goods, too hot for their climate, and lost a very large sum in the attempt. Private adventurers sent out cotton goods, which were suited for the clothing of the country, and the result is a trade amounting to upwards of ten millions annually in that article alone; whilst the consumption of woollens only reaches the comparatively small item of 264,000*l.* * Very remarkable, moreover, is the proof afforded by these figures of the value of our machinery. In the table of imports we find an import of raw cotton from India to the extent of 3,300,000*l.*, of which, from the table of exports, we see that no less than 1,600,000*l.* returns to India in the shape of cotton yarn. The natives, therefore, actually find it to their advantage to send their raw material to England to be spun for their own use, or to receive yarn in exchange for cotton.

Railway materials exported to India.

The large quantity of iron sent to India is, no doubt, for the construction of the railways, which will account also for the sawn wood which appears at the head of our exports of foreign products: the sawn wood being, probably, creosoted sleepers of Norway pine. The large items under the heads "machinery and steam engines, coals, telegraph wires, &c." are to be accounted for in the same way. This exportation is not only advantageous to our export trade at present, but will tell far more wonderfully in its favour when the railroads come to be constructed, opening up facilities of transport for goods which hitherto have been utterly unknown in India.

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* The rapid progress made in the export of our cotton manufactures to India is indeed wonderful. In 1814, the first year of the free trade to India, the export of cotton amounted to 817,000 yards, of which only about 170,000 yards, valued at 17,778*l.*, were exported by the Company! In 1859, the quantity exported was equal to 1,000,000,000 yards, valued at 11,000,000*l.*! Yet, enormous as this total is, it is scarcely too much to say that English cotton manufactures have not yet entered into the bulk of native consumption in India at all! Colonel Baird Smith in his recent report to the Government of India, on the commercial condition of the North-West provinces of India, says: "*The chief consumers of English cloths here* "*are all classes near to open and easy lines of communication, be they by land or* "*water;* a comparatively small section of agriculturists, being the upper grades "of the class at a distance from such communications; a very large proportion of "the inhabitants of towns and cities everywhere, and, of course, the whole of the "European community. *The mass of the agricultural and the poorer non-* "*agricultural classes have scarcely yet become the customers of Manchester at all,* "though it is merely a question of time and internal improvements of roads and "rivers when they shall become so."

Export of articles of European consumption.

The large exports of "beer and ale," "preserved provisions," "umbrellas and parasols," "printed books," "stationery," "earthenware and porcelain," "saddlery and harness," "drugs," "pickles and sauces," "lead and shot," and amongst foreign articles, "wine and brandy," speak of the social life of our own countrymen in India. Apart, in fact, from the cotton goods, which form so large a part of the whole, few of our articles of exportation appear to be intended for the consumption of the natives, except, indeed, salt—an item of very large amount, which tells another tale of fiscal misgovernment.* This observation may be laid to heart by British merchants and manufacturers, who, when the completion of the Indian railways enables them to reach the great internal districts of the country with their goods, may probably find profitable markets for articles which even yet have scarcely entered into our list of exportations.

Export of salt for native consumption.

Notice has already been taken of the trade recently opened with the territories ceded to us by the Burmese on the east side of the Bay of Bengal. Reference must also be made to the very considerable trade which has been opened at Kurrachee, at the north-west extremity of the coast of Scinde. For some time this port has been regarded in London and elsewhere as

Kurrachee.

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* The "Salt monopoly," maintained by our Government in India, has been one of the most cruel items of taxation upon the people of that country, at the same time that it has been most injurious to trade. See frequent debates in Parliament on this subject. The Salt which cost the Government, in 1860, 323,800*l.* was sold to the natives for no less than 3,056,200*l.*; this enormous taxation being levied, it is to be remembered, on an article of the first necessity.

the probable future emporium of the vast territories traversed by the river Indus. A railway already connects Kurrachee with Hyderabad, so as to make Kurrachee the port for all the territory dependent on that great city. By this port and the Indus, Cashmere, and other districts, previously almost beyond the reach of direct commerce, will hereafter be penetrated with facility.

Singapore

In close connexion with our East Indian commerce, is our trade with SINGAPORE, a British settlement of modern date, but of the utmost value to the commerce of the world. The settlement of Singapore was originally undertaken by Sir Stamford Raffles so recently as 1818. Sir Stamford, who was a man far in advance of his time, got small thanks from the British Government for his enterprize; indeed they did not even recognise the settlement, now so valuable to them, until seven years after, just one year before his death. When Sir Stamford Raffles first settled Singapore, its beautiful harbour was the retreat of a body of Malay pirates. It was settled, at first, by about 150 persons; but five years after, in 1824, its population had increased to 10,680 permanent settlers, and it has now more than 60,000 inhabitants. In 1825 the British Government entered into a convention with the Dutch, and with the native princes, by which Great Britain was confirmed in its possession of this territory.

Its settlement by Sir S. Raffles, A.D. 1818.

Its rapid increase.

The importance of the settlement results from its position. Equidistant from Calcutta and Canton, it is a central point for the commerce of the Indian Ocean and the North and South Pacific. Its situation also is most convenient for trade with all the islands of the Oceania. The flags of all the nations of Europe and America are intermingled in the waters of Singapore harbour, with the streamers of

Importance of Singapore.

the junks of China, and of the prahus of Siam, Borneo, Java, Sumatra, Celebes, and all the larger islands of the southern seas. Singapore, being a free port, is resorted to by all the independent traders of the Archipelago. Much of the trade even of the Dutch dependencies is carried on here in preference to the highly-taxed ports of Java. In fact, in Singapore, the British have an emporium for their trade with eastern nations, rivalling, and even in many respects surpassing that of the Dutch at Batavia.

Trade of Singapore.

The trade of Singapore in a few years after its first settlement exceeded two millions. It is now computed to exceed ten millions annually. With Great Britain in the year 1860, the import and export trade approached 3,000,000*l.*: our imports being 1,054,000, and our exports 1,718,000*l.* The following were the principal items:—

TRADE WITH SINGAPORE, 1860.

Imports and exports.

IMPORTS FROM.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS TO.	VALUED AT
Terra Japonica	£158,435	Cotton Goods	£1,086,582
Gutta Percha	154,627	„ Yarn	175,246
Pepper	151,658	Woollen Goods	84,700
Sago	129,794	Iron „	49,718
Tin	110,732	Copper	47,132
Hides	48,592	Coals, &c.	31,599
Rice	44,217	Linens	29,105
Sugar	40,355	Beer and Ale	19,879
Coffee	39,694	Gunpowder	14,959
Gums	31,897	Hardwares and Cutlery	10,534
Caoutchouc	31,291	Glass	8,384
Antimony Ore	21,520	Earthenware	8,255
Canes	19,779	Machinery	7,425
Cutch	8,779	Apparel	6,787
Nutmegs	5,206	Steam Engines	3,380
Mother of Pearl	4,821	Guns	1,331
Tortoiseshell	3,963		
Camphor	2,703	Foreign Cotton Yarn, &c.	24,252
Cassia and other Oils	2,469	Wine	6,469
Mace	1,002	Steel and Iron	5,592
Gamboge	828	Spelter	2,171
Vegetable Tallow	742	Brandy	813
		Paper	200

Singapore the entrepôt for the trade of the Eastern islands.

Singapore exports no products of her own. The settlement is on an island little larger than the Isle of Wight, which does not produce sufficient for the consumption of its own inhabitants, who are supplied by junks from the neighbouring coasts and islands with grain, vegetables, fruit, pork, turtle, fish, and other articles. The exports of Singapore to England are, therefore, products drawn from the various ports of the Archipelago with which she trades. Her imports, in the same way, are principally intended for distribution amongst the countries with which Singapore carries on her commerce. The principal merchants and agents at this interesting settlement are British, but there are a number of very respectable Chinese and native dealers.

CEYLON.

CEYLON, which was only separated from the government of the East India Company and brought under that of the State, at the commencement of the present century, is still considered as an annex of British India as regards commerce.

The Cinnamon monopoly.

Widely different, indeed, is the history of our trade with this island from the history of that of the dependency last adverted to. When Ceylon was wrested from the Dutch towards the close of the last century, the principal product of the island was Cinnamon. Of the trade in that spice the East India Company made a close monopoly; and on the transference of the island to the Government of Great Britain, the Company agreed to pay 60,000*l.* a year for 400,000 lb. or 4,342½ bales of cinnamon; it being stipulated that if the quantity collected exceeded that amount, the surplus should be burned. This agreement was subsequently broken off; but, down to 1833, the Government continued the monopoly, sent the cinnamon to England, and sold it on their own account at quarterly sales. Now, it

Its injurious effects.

is obvious, that this monopoly could not be maintained without limiting the culture of the plant. This led to the most harassing and grievous interferences with the rights of individuals, and to oppressions of such a character as seriously to affect the prosperity of the island. The evils engendered at length became so great, that it was found necessary to abandon the monopoly, and, in 1833, the Cingalese were allowed to cultivate cinnamon where and how they pleased. But, unfortunately, the Government accompanied the abolition of the monopoly with the imposition of an exorbitant duty upon exportation, amounting to from 200 to 300 per cent. upon the value of the article. In the face of such duties the exports of cinnamon declined, and the cultivation of the island languished. Successful attempts were also made to cultivate the plant in Java and other places, where it was not subjected to the duties levied in Ceylon; and besides this, a substitute for the article was found in the bark of the cassia lignea, a tree extensively grown in Sumatra, the Philippine Islands, and other places in the southern seas. It appeared probable, therefore, that the cinnamon of Ceylon would be driven out of use, in which case the island would have been left without any article of export. Happily, at this juncture, the people turned their attention to another production, for which Ceylon was found to be particularly well adapted both by soil and climate.

Its abandonment.

Export duties levied on cinnamon.

Their effect.

Substitution of the coffee cultivation.

The rapid increase in the consumption of coffee in England consequent upon a reduction of customs' duties in 1825, led to an attempt to extend the growth of the berry in the interior of Ceylon, and that attempt proved so successful, that the island has now become the great source from whence we derive coffee, not only for our own consumption but for exportation to the other countries of the world.

Our imports of coffee.

The following were the quantities of coffee imported and entered for home consumption in 1860, from different sources of supply:—

COFFEE IMPORTED, 1860.

FROM WHENCE.	IMPORTED.	RETAINED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION.	VALUE.
	lb.	lb.	£
Ceylon	59,322,797	25,734,575	1,813,215
British East Indies	7,562,947	4,021,758	264,653
Brazil	6,236,395	208,185	162,877
British West India Islands	3,831,010	2,075,960	120,320
Central America	3,459,668	2,690,146	104,767
New Granada	502,495	330,739	13,764
Egypt	468,359	42,237	18,927
United States	366,031	115,627	15,685
Hamburg	241,237	10,285	6,053
Hayti	111,452	6,057	2,930
Java	92,323	11,550	2,562
Philippine Islands	89,271	59,121	2,453
Other Parts	483,761	368,141	15,101
TOTAL	82,767,746	35,674,381	£2,543,307

Great extent of the supply from Ceylon.

It will be seen from this table that Ceylon has entirely superseded our British West India Islands and Hayti in the supply of coffee, and that she sends us nearly double as much as we require for our own consumption, enabling us to export her produce to other countries to the extent of nearly 35,000,000 lb. of coffee a year. The most extraordinary and rapid increase in the growth of coffee in Ceylon is illustrated by the following table:—

Its rapid increase.

EXPORTATION OF COFFEE FROM CEYLON.

YEAR.	CWTS.	VALUE.
1837	34,164	£106,999
1840	68,206	214,529
1845	178,603	363,259
1851	349,957	688,156
1855	506,540	1,025,282
1860	895,000	1,813,215*

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* It is remarkable that the consumption of coffee has not increased in England

Deductions from this history.

Such is the history of our trade with Ceylon. It affords another practical illustration of the different effects produced on commerce by monopoly and free trade. Under the former system the trade of this productive island was nearly ruined; under the latter it has risen to such prosperity that the balance of trade is in favour of the island to the extent of a million and a half per annum—our trade, in 1860, being represented by the following totals:—

Extent of our trade with Ceylon.

Imports from Ceylon	£2,274,647
Exports to ,, ...	711,582

Of which the principal items were as follows:—

Imports and exports.

IMPORTS FROM CEYLON.	VALUED AT
Coffee	£1,813,215
Cocoa-Nut Oil	229,184
Cinnamon	51,641
Coir Rope, &c.	39,860
Black Lead	36,359
Cotton	34,538
Essential Oils	20,909
Ebony	9,091
Cowries	3,328
Hides	1,339

EXPORTS TO CEYLON.	VALUED AT
Cotton Goods	£364,646
Iron ,, ...	38,755
Coal, &c.	27,075
Cotton Yarn	26,004
Beer and Ale	25,593
Apparel	21,843
Hardwares and Cutlery. . .	21,783
Woollen Goods	13,691
Wines.	11,790
Earthenware	11,734
Stationery	8,231
Copper	7,134
Glass	7,026
Machinery	6,478
Drugs	3,693

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for several years past. In 1846, 1847, and 1848, we absolutely consumed more coffee than in 1856, 1857, and 1858, though in the latter years the prices were lower, and our population had greatly increased. In 1860 we retained for home consumption no greater quantity than in 1845. The cause of this may perhaps be partly found in the admixture of chicory with coffee. It is also probable that the retail price of coffee, which is surely beyond its intrinsic value, together with the quantity of sugar required to make coffee palatable to English tastes, renders it a beverage scarcely less costly to the poor than tea. In the United States, where the article is cheap, the consumption of coffee has increased with great rapidity. New York obtains its chief supply of coffee from Brazil.

The ports of Ceylon.

The trade with Ceylon has hitherto been principally conducted with Colombo; but as the harbour there is very inferior, being, in fact, an open roadstead, and as the coffee plantations may be reached from other ports with equal facility, it is probable that they will soon acquire a share of the commercial importance of what is now the principal port of the island. This will be advantageous to our trade with Ceylon, which can scarcely yet be said to be developed. As their exports have increased, and as they have consequently increased in wealth, the inhabitants have been taking somewhat larger supplies of our commodities; but it is obvious that the island has capacity for a very much larger consumption. The following shows the increase of its trade during the last five years:—

Increase of the Ceylon trade.

TRADE WITH CEYLON.

YEAR.	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
1856	£1,304,174	£411,095
1857	1,503,897	549,054
1858	1,679,852	570,404
1859	1,654,391	697,825
1860	2,274,647	711,582

The MAURITIUS.

The MAURITIUS and its dependencies are extremely thriving. Originally a French dependency, the Mauritius, was taken possession of by our forces in 1810, and was only definitively ceded to Great Britain in 1814. Up to 1825 the island was treated, commercially, almost in the same way as a foreign country; but in that year, sugar, and other articles imported from the Mauritius were put upon the same footing as the like goods imported from the British West Indies. This measure proved to be a great boon to the Mauritius, inasmuch as only eight years after, in 1833, the island was included in the Slave Emancipation Act, under which the proprietors in the Mauritius obtained upwards of 2,000,000*l.* of the twenty millions voted by Parliament as "compensation" for their abandonment of slave labour. This large payment was of the utmost importance to the colony. Unlike the West Indies, the estates in the Mauritius were not deeply embarrassed by mortgages, and the compensation money was capable of being applied to the improvement of the country. The proprietors, with great judgment, expended a very large proportion of the money they received, in fertilizing their land, improving their machinery,* and importing labour from the East Indies, Madagascar, and other parts. They thus brought a large and entirely new labouring population into their country; and by good management of them, they have rendered the Mauritius one of the most flourishing of the British colonial possessions.

Its past and present commercial history.

In 1840, the imports of sugar into the United Kingdom from the Mauritius amounted to 516,076 cwt. In 1856 they amounted to 2,372,313 cwt. Besides this, the Mauritius sends a very large quantity of sugar to France, Australia, and the Cape of Good Hope. It has given itself up to sugar cultivation. Since 1854, its other exports, such as coffee, tortoiseshell, &c. have ceased, and the whole island has become a sugar-factory. A curious contrast, indeed, with the condition of our West India Islands, in many of which proprietors have been abandoning the sugar cultivation in despair, without, it is to be feared, applying themselves to the production of any other articles.

Great increase of its sugar production.

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* In the three years 1857, 1858, and 1859, the planters of Mauritius expended the following sums in mill machinery, guano, and mules :—

Machinery	£249,582
Guano	233,022
Mules	108,053
TOTAL	£590,657

Our trade with the Mauritius in 1860 was represented by—

Imports therefrom, amounting to . .	£1,684,264
Exports thereto „	564,787

Statistics of trade with the Mauritius.

Sugar represents 1,537,000*l.* of the imports; the only other articles brought from the Mauritius were rum, and some small quantities of raw cotton, and wool. Our exports to the island were—

EXPORTS TO THE MAURITIUS, 1860.

	VALUED AT		VALUED AT
Cotton Goods	£132,415	Prepared Fuel	£5,767
Machinery	75,422	Glass Manufactures	5,938
Iron	62,227	Lead and Shot	5,473
Copper	29,331	Coals	2,798
Beer and Ale	25,065	Earthenware	2,767
Apparel	24,159	Manure	1,972
Hardware and Cutlery . . .	21,118		
Steam Engines	17,817		
Tin Plates	11,097	Guano	9,313
Carriages	9,872	Wine	5,872
Linens	7,615	Cigars	3,146
Painters' Colours	6,756	Wood, Sawn	2,160
Woollens	6,132	Cheese	1,464

Trade with the CAPE.

It is gratifying to find that the CAPE OF GOOD HOPE, which we took possession of purely for military purposes so lately as 1806, now stands next to Australia and Canada in the list of our colonies considered in reference to commerce. For a long time the commercial development of this territory was very much retarded by the frontier war between the Boers and Kaffirs which, originating with the Dutch, continued to be carried on down to a very recent period of our rule. In 1853, however, a guerilla warfare, which had lasted for a number of years, was brought to a conclusion by the voluntary submission of Sandilli, with whom the Governor (Sir George Cathcart) concluded a treaty, one of the provisions of which assigned the Kaffir tribes new lands for their residence. Since tranquillity was thus established, the roads of

Its large increase since the cessation of the Kaffir Wars.

the colony have undergone repairs, new lines of communication have been opened out, and the resources of the Cape have been greatly developed. The following table will show the commercial progress of the colony since 1854. To the exports and imports since 1856 there have to be added those of Natal, which previously to that year were included in the Cape list:—

Imports and exports.

TRADE WITH THE CAPE OF GOOD HOPE.

YEAR.	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
1854	£691,352	£1,064,283
1855	949,640	1,212,630
1856	1,502,828	1,417,465
1857	1,793,717	1,949,224
1858	1,723,445	1,812,881
1859	1,685,258	2,045,425
1860	1,713,502	2,162,731

The principal articles in which the people of the Cape have increased their export trade to England since 1852 have been wool, wine, hides and skins; all indicating their progress as an agricultural population. The increase in their export of wool has been something quite surprising:—

Wool.

EXPORT OF WOOL FROM THE CAPE TO ENGLAND.

1833	113,077 lb.
1843	1,754,757 ,,
1853	7,221,448 ,,
1856	14,305,188 ,,
1860	16,574,345 ,,*

Wool is now by far the most important item of export from the colony. The increase of the quantity exported is the more remarkable, as the native breed of sheep at the Cape is very inferior, the fleece being worth little, and the animal itself being principally of account in consequence of the size of its tail, which sometimes weighs as much as 18 lb. or 20 lb. The wool grown at the Cape, therefore, has been produced from imported sheep of the Spanish merino and other breeds, which have thriven well in the colony. Next to Australia and India, the Cape of Good Hope now sends us the largest supply of wool we receive from any quarter of the world.

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* The exportation in the last year being exclusive of 530,060 lb. sent us from Natal.

Wine.

The production of wine at the Cape of Good Hope was a good deal stimulated by the differential duties until recently levied in this country. Those duties, by permitting the introduction of Cape wines at lower rates than foreign wines, gave an opportunity to the wine merchant of mixing the wines of the Cape with those of Spain, and thereby obtaining increased profits. This adulteration was, at one time, carried to a great extent. Then, Cape wines were brought into consumption in their natural state, showing the demand which existed amongst the public for wine at a low price. Except Constantia, however, of which the growth is very small, the Cape wines are all of inferior quality, and they cannot be expected to compete in the English market with the vintages of Spain and other vine-growing countries nearer home. The export of Cape wine which reached 789,000 gallons in 1859, previous to the reduction of the wine duties, fell to 690,000 in 1860, and a further decline must be anticipated.*

Hides, &c.

Hides, skins, and horns, form a very important item of import from the Cape. They principally come from Algoa Bay, which communicates with the plains on the eastern side of the colony. The exportations of ostrich feathers and elephants' teeth

Ostrich feathers.

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* Since this was written, the Board of Trade returns show that the wine imported from South Africa, in 1861, only amounted to 126,950 gallons. Some parties in the wine trade appear to think that "the reaction will prove but of short duration." The writer, however, differs from this view. The wines of the Cape may find a market in South America, the Mauritius, &c.; but they must undergo very considerable improvement to enable them to compete with European wines in the English market.

have also recently much extended, showing increased communication with the interior, and more unrestricted trade with the natives. Copper ore has only become an article of export from this colony within the last ten years; the quantity exported in 1852 having been only 26 tons, whilst, in 1860, it had risen to 3,512.

Copper.

The following is the list of principal articles under both heads:—

Imports and exports.

Imports.	valued at
Wool, Sheep and Lambs'	£1,187,748
Copper Ore	95,861
Wine	92,893
Skins, Sheep and Goat	89,730
Hides	48,477
Ostrich Feathers	43,025
Elephants' Teeth*	37,590
Sugar	18,867
Seeds, Flax and Linseed	15,960
Guano	7,860
Seal Skins	7,681
Cotton	3,336
Aloes	2,914
Horns	2,752

Exports.	valued at
Apparel and Hosiery	£382,193
Cotton Goods	359,332
Woollen „	153,222
Iron	150,035
Hardware and Cutlery	128,549
Leather Goods	98,539
Soap and Candles	70,892
Beer and Ale	49,810
Machinery	48,189
Saddlery	38,613
Hats	37,912
Linen Goods	32,383
Stationery	31,132
Guns	28,156
Furniture	23,761
Glass	21,691
Earthenware	19,096
Empty Bags	18,723
Printed Books	17,510
Gunpowder	16,114
Silk Manufactures	16,515
Drugs	15,370
Wine	15,854
Coals, &c.	14,791
Other Foreign and Colonial Goods	86,354

Our exports to the Cape.

Our exports to the Cape are of two classes of goods—first, for the supply of the native population and for trade with the interior of Southern Africa; and, second, for the supply of the British inhabitants of the colony, who, judging from the character of the articles they require, are rapidly increasing in wealth and luxury. The quantities of wearing apparel and hosiery, soap and candles, beer and ale, saddlery, furniture, glass, earthenware, books, stationery, silks, &c. exported to the colony denote a very flourishing population. The trade with the interior admits, however, of extension; and probably, in the course of a short time, that extension will be obtained. Hitherto the Americans have done, in a contraband way, a very considerable share of the business with the native populations of the Cape. In consequence of our frontier wars, the sale of gunpowder and firearms to the natives was, for some time, prohibited in this colony. The Americans took up the business of supplying them, surreptitiously, with those articles at ports on the eastern coast, and along with guns and gunpowder sold them many other articles of first necessity. Now that the frontier war has been abated, and order established in the colony, it may be hoped that a better system of trade will be promoted.

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* The ivory of the African elephant is less liable to become discoloured than any other, and is therefore more esteemed. The price of good ivory ("billiards") in London varies from 30*l.* to 60*l.* per cwt. according to the size of the tooth, the heaviest fetching most.

Trade with the natives of South Africa.

Algoa Bay.

Algoa Bay, on the eastern side of the Cape Colony, has recently become a larger seat of export trade than Capetown. The principal port, called Port Elizabeth, has an excellent harbour. Farther on along the coast, we established a new settlement in 1841, which is now recognised as Natal. To this colony, which is said to have a delightful climate, large emigration has taken place of late years. Since 1856 its imports and exports have been distinguished in official returns from those of the Cape of Good Hope. The trade with Natal is at present limited, but it is obviously growing, as the following figures show:—

NATAL.

	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.	TOTAL TRADE.
1857	£88,174	£140,546	£228,720
1860	103,721	236,864	340,585

The list of imports and exports is not large, but the items indicate agricultural progress and some development of native trade:—

Trade with Natal.

TRADE WITH NATAL.

IMPORTS FROM.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS TO.	VALUED AT
Wool	£37,851	Cotton Goods	£43,004
Hides	21,640	Apparel	30,551
Elephants' Teeth	18,092	Machinery	26,541
Sugar	12,506	Woollen Goods	23,427
Arrowroot	10,073	Iron	15,141
Ostrich Feathers	317	Hardwares	15,005
		Leather and Saddlery	15,611
		Colonial Produce, &c.	16,248

ASCENSION.

The trade carried on with the lone Atlantic islands of ASCENSION and ST. HELENA would scarcely be worth mentioning but for some peculiarities. Ascension, which is a mere volcanic rock, produces nothing. We use it as a coal depôt for steamers navigating the Southern Ocean, and they do not appear largely to resort to it, as our export of coal and prepared fuel scarcely amounts to 2,000*l.* a year. ST. HELENA sent us in 1860 about 12,000*l.* worth of orchal, gathered on her rocks; some guano, which, considering the moisture of her climate, must have been an unprofitable import; a few hides, and a small quantity of wool. In return we sent to St. Helena, in small quantities of course, nearly every article that enters into the daily consumption of a European population: bread and butter, cheese and biscuits, beef and pork, beer and ale, soap and candles, slops and haberdashery, boots and shoes, brandy, tea, tobacco, and wine. The value of the goods sent there was 56,157*l.* The sum paid out of the national exchequer for the cost of supporting this dependency was 63,000*l.* It would appear, therefore, that we are keeping up this distant island, with its population of 5,500, at a greater cost than

ST. HELENA.

the whole value of its trade. For what object we maintain a government and military establishment on this rock it is difficult to say. It no longer affords any protection to our commerce, for the trade to and from the East Indies is very much diverted to other routes, and comparatively few vessels now touch at St. Helena.

The FALKLAND ISLANDS. Maintained as a Government establishment, not for commerce,

In the FALKLAND ISLANDS we have another instance of a dependency maintained, as it would seem, without any other object than that of patronage.* Upon this isolated group, with a population of less than 500 souls, we are expending, in salaries paid out of the Imperial Treasury, an amount which, on the average of the last five years, exceeds the total exportation of the islands! A Company was formed some years since, under the title of "the Falkland Islands Company," whose principal object it was to trade in the herds of wild cattle which have been multiplying in these islands since Commodore Byron landed on them in 1764. One would not suppose, however, that the enterprise was very successful, judging from the following meagre list of imports and exports for 1860, which do not exceed those of many a provincial village:—

IMPORTS FROM.	VALUED AT
Hides	£3,631
Wool	2,338
Seal Skins	659
Train Oil	207

EXPORTS TO.	VALUED AT
Slops	£1,148
Leather and Saddlery	770
Corn and Flour	309
Beer and Ale	213
Rum	184
Tea	172
Tobacco	145
Wine	135

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* The Under Secretary of the Colonies, Mr. J. F. Elliott, could give no better reason to a Parliamentary Committee for the occupancy of the Falkland islands than that "they were held to prevent bad uses." Every attempt made to colonize these islands has failed. They are only fit for a convict settlement; and it would entail great cost to adapt them even to that purpose.

but for patronage,

The greater part of the population of these unproductive islands are stated to be office-holders, receiving salaries from the British Government. It is lamentable to think of our keeping up government establishments in dependencies so obscure and worthless; especially knowing as we do, that we may be forced at some future date into enormous expenditure for maintaining or defending them. Our very right to the Falkland Islands has been already, on more than one occasion, disputed by the Governments of Spain and Buenos Ayres; and it is doubted, if not questioned, by other more important powers.

at the risk of a war with other nations.

Trade with AUSTRALIA.

Passing from these islands which afford nothing, we proceed to consider the trade of the colonies of AUSTRALIA, which, whilst Downing Street has been engaged in settling the Falkland Islands, have promoted themselves to so high a position in the ranks of commerce. It will be seen, from the following table, that our gross trade with these countries exceeded 21,000,000*l.* in 1860, of which 15,000,000*l.* was represented by merchandise, and 6,000,000*l.* by coin and bullion.

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH AUSTRALIA, 1860.

	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
New South Wales	£1,830,371	£2,709,973
Victoria	2,867,445	5,802,513
South Australia	736,480	880,894
West Australia	93,699	116,838
	£5,527,995	£9,510,218
Gold and Silver	6,719,857	29,720
	£12,247,852	£9,539,938

In order correctly to measure the progress of our trade with these colonies, it is necessary to take them seriatim.

New South Wales, its pastoral character.

Down to the 1st of August, 1848, New South Wales was a penal colony. From that date the transportation of convicts to Australia ceased. In 1850, Port Philip was separated from it, and made a separate colony under the name of Victoria, and constitutions were granted to both. At that time the population of New South Wales amounted to 250,000. It was entirely dependent upon its pastoral resources, and its sheep and other stock. Wool and tallow were by far the most important exports of the colony. The value of the Australian trade generally was about 2,500,000*l.* annually; the wool and tallow exported amounting to about 1,000,000*l.*, and the imports from Great Britain averaging about 1,300,000*l.*

Discovery of gold.

In 1852 the discovery of gold changed the whole aspect of New South Wales. In order to pay the expenses of our convict and other establishments, England, up to that time, had annually been obliged to export gold to Australia. All this was now changed. The people grew suddenly rich, and were able to purchase supplies of commodities greatly in excess of their previous consumption. Our export trade to New South Wales accordingly rose at once from 1,632,137*l.* in 1852 to 4,527,775*l.* in 1853.

Consequent increase of trade.

Our exportation in the latter year was, no doubt, in excess of the wants of the community, and many failures both in England and in the colony resulted from the disappointments consequent upon this overtrading. These embarrassments, however, were only temporary. A large increase of trade was justified by the ability of the colonists to purchase; and since the trade has settled down, free from the excitement of the first discovery of the precious metals, our exportations to New South Wales have averaged fully 3,000,000*l.* per annum. The list of articles chiefly imported and exported is as follows:—

Imports from and exports to Sydney.

TRADE WITH NEW SOUTH WALES, 1860.

IMPORTS FROM.

	VALUED AT
Wool	£1,527,648
Hides	97,308
Cocoa Nut Oil	45,548
Copper Ore	32,949
Spermaceti	31,940
Tallow	23,274
Gums	6,521
Woods	5,456
Whale Fins	5,109
Bones	3,322
Sheep Skins	3,284
Tortoiseshell	2,944
Australian Wine	58

N.B. There are no reliable accounts of our imports of gold from New South Wales since its discovery, nor of the gold yield of the colony. The quantity of gold which has been coined at Sydney amounts to a very large item; in 1860 it was estimated at 1,621,354*l.* The export of uncoined gold that year was estimated at 93,036 ounces. It is anticipated that the colonial gold coined at the Sydney Mint will presently be made a legal tender throughout all the British dominions; so that we may soon have Sydney sovereigns current in Cornhill. Large shipments of gold are made from Australia to India. New South Wales gold is generally of a lower quality than that from Victoria.

EXPORTS TO.

	VALUED AT
Apparel	£495,265
Leather	287,496
Cotton Goods	181,600
Iron ,,	176,337
Woollen ,,	154,094
Beer and Ale	142,360
Hardwares and Cutlery	121,764
Stationery	81,223
Saddlery and Harness	54,470
Brandy	49,135
Wine	46,275
Hats	46,415
Linens	39,475
Rum	37,895
Silk Manufactures	33,298
Glass	33,088
Soap and Candles	31,673
Drugs	29,735
Furniture	26,967
Pickles and Sauces	26,281
Books	25,162
Steam Engines	23,099
Earthenware	21,192
Raisins and Currants	15,965
Musical Instruments	15,877
Corn and Flour	15,600
Confectionery	15,556
Butter and Cheese	15,270
Copper	14,788
Machinery	12,708
Empty Bags	12,546
Straw Hats, &c.	11,147
Tobacco	10,961
Gin	10,618
Plate and Jewellery	10,257
Carriages	7,135
Gloves	4,665

The wool trade of Australia.

Australia now stands at the head of the list of countries which supply England with wool. The following is an account showing the quantities of wool imported in 1860 from all the countries of the world :—

WOOL IMPORTED, 1860.

Quantities of wool received from different countries, A.D. 1860.

COUNTRY.	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
	lb.	£
British Settlements in Australia	59,165,939	5,387,078
British Possessions in South Africa	16,574,345	1,187,748
Hamburg	8,733,484	869,120
British East Indies	20,214,173	699,861
Belgium	4,723,628	472,362
Holland	3,760,546	376,056
Russia	8,730,107	358,532
Portugal	4,424,260	230,124
Peru (Alpaca and Vicuna Wool)	2,743,193	145,555
Buenos Ayres	1,614,538	104,394
Denmark and Iceland	2,368,882	101,039
Spain	1,000,227	97,743
United States	1,091,390	92,211
France	931,128	89,734
Egypt	2,066,650	83,925
Uruguay	1,260,370	82,921
Prussia	661,372	65,804
Gibraltar	1,402,492	56,903
Turkey Proper	939,609	39,929
Morocco	849,325	32,161
Bremen	306,549	30,551
Hanover	252,909	25,232
Chili (Alpaca and Vicuna)	418,389	21,925
Other parts	1,268,146	54,014
TOTAL	145,501,651	£10,704,922

Vast and rapid increase in the clip of Australian wool.

In 1810 Australia sent home its "first clip" of wool. In 1860 the Australian colonies furnsihed nearly 60,000,000 lb. The progressive supply for each ten years was as follows :—

EXPORT OF WOOL FROM AUSTRALIA.

YEAR.	lb.
1810	167
1820	99,415
1830	1,967,309
1840	9,721,243
1850	39,018,221
1860	59,165,939

The alpaca and vicuna have recently been introduced with success into New South Wales, and in the next ten years we may expect supplies of the wool of those animals.

Importation of tallow from New South Wales.

It should be noticed, that the importation of tallow from this colony has materially decreased. In consequence of the increase of population, the sheep are not now boiled down as they were some years ago, but are used as food. The flocks, however, are so rapidly increasing, that it may be expected, at no distant period, that there will again be an excess of the supply required for consumption, in which case, the exportation of tallow will, no doubt, again increase. It is curious to note the progressive fall in the quantity exported—

Decrease of the export of tallow.

TALLOW EXPORTED FROM NEW SOUTH WALES.

YEAR.	cwt.
1852	118,649
1853	115,933
1854	64,378
1855	42,029
1856	73,281
1857	48,257
1858	29,601
1859	11,924
1860	8,110

Australian wine, &c.

In the same way the importation of wine grown and manufactured in Australia sunk from 3,356 gallons in 1852 to 586 in 1860; but this, considering the quality, can scarcely be considered any loss. The hides exported are about stationary, and the copper ore has considerably increased.

QUEENSLAND.

In 1860, the accounts of the rising colony of QUEENSLAND, which has recently become a distinct settlement from New South Wales, were first published separately from those of the larger colony. The statistics are not yet in a condition to enable us to do more than draw from them a favourable augury as to the future of this productive pastoral settlement. Our exports to Queensland direct in 1860, amounted to 53,297*l.* and in 1861 to 75,000*l.*; but this does not by any means show the extent of the consumption of this very rising colony.

Trade with VICTORIA.

The colony of VICTORIA is, if possible, even a still more remarkable instance of rapid progress than that of New South Wales. This colony was absolutely unsettled until thirty years ago. In 1824 it was visited by two English travellers, who published an account which drew attention to it, and in 1826 Western Point was formally taken possession of, and a small fort erected on an island in Port Philip Harbour. Up to 1836, however, the Government appeared anxious to check emigration to this colony, and would sanction no territorial arrangements calculated to promote its effectual settlement. In that year they appointed a governor and some other officials, and the colonists themselves imported 30,000 sheep from Van Diemen's Land. The colony, thereafter, made rapid progress, and at the time it was separated from New South Wales, contained a population of upwards of 80,000, and exported as much wool as the parent colony.

Its settlement, despite Downing Street difficulties.

Discovery of gold, A.D. 1851.

In 1851, only fifteen years after what may be considered its settlement, the first discovery was made of the extraordinarily productive gold-fields for which Victoria has since become famous. Such was the rush to the colony, that its population immediately rose from 95,000 to 200,000; a rise in one year said to be absolutely without any precedent in the world's history. The immediate increase in the prosperity of the colony will be illustrated by the following table :—

Immediate and unprecedented rise in the prosperity of this colony.

STATISTICS OF VICTORIA.	1851.	1852.
Imports from the Colony.	£1,056,000	£4,044,000
Exports to ,, ...	£1,424,000	£7,452,000
Colonial Revenue	£380,000	£1,577,000
Tonnage Entered Inwards	126,000	380,000
Population of Melbourne	23,000	80,000
,, of Geelong	8,000	20,000
,, of the Colony	95,000	200,000

Decline of the gold produce accounted for.

The population of Victoria in 1860 was upwards of 500,000, of whom 300,000 were males. The produce of gold has declined, but this is well accounted for in the following despatch of the Governor, Sir Henry Barkley, presented to Parliament in April, 1862 :—*

"I reckoned in 1857 on a large and continuous accession to the mining population, to compensate for the comparative falling off in the richness of the earliest worked alluvial deposits; whereas immigration at the public expense was soon afterwards discontinued, and one class of miners suddenly reduced in numbers by the threatened exaction of residence tax from the Chinese. Much labour was also withdrawn to the construction of railways, as well as to agriculture by the opening up of the lands. But above all has been the drain annually caused by the reports of gold discoveries of surpassing richness in other colonies. In 1858 the Port Curtis rush drew ten or twelve thousand diggers to what is now the territory of Queensland; in 1859–60, at least an equal number were tempted by the glowing, though fallacious, accounts of the Snowy River diggings to cross the frontier into New South Wales; in the present year as many more have embarked for the gold-fields in the Otago Province, New Zealand; and while it is still uncertain whether these will support a quarter of their present population, the note of preparation for a rush to the

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* The actual quantity of gold found in Victoria, between 1851 and 1861, was about 800 tons, or 103,000,000*l.* sterling. It is to be regretted that no reliable materials exist for giving the annual import of gold from our colonies; no account of the gold and bullion imported having been taken by the customs prior to 1857.

Lachlan, in New South Wales, is again being sounded by the Sydney press.

"The wonder is, indeed, that the effects of all this have not been more strongly exhibited at the Victoria gold-fields, but it must be borne in mind that there always was a large unsettled population in this colony prospecting for new gold-fields at home, and it is from this source mainly, though by no means exclusively, that these foreign rushes are fed, many diggers going to and returning disappointed from each in succession.

"No accurate data exist for determining the numbers actually engaged in mining at the two periods, but some idea may be formed from the fact, that so late as 1859, when the Mining Surveyor's Reports were first published, it was computed at 125,764, whilst, in the Report for September last, the aggregate stands at but 103,384. Added to this, more than 10,000 Chinese had left the colony between 1857 and 1859; their number now, allowing for a subsequent reduction of 3,000, being estimated at 23,000 as against 36,000.

"A reduction to so great an extent in the labour applied, goes a long way in accounting for the diminution in the product. It not merely explains why no great rush has taken place within the colony since 1858, and why so little new alluvial ground has been opened, but accounts, in some degree, for the deserted aspect of the old alluvial diggings around the towns I visited, which I anticipated, when there before, would give profitable employment in reworking for a far longer period."

Exports of Victoria.

The following were the exports of Victoria to Great Britain in 1860, in addition to the gold:—

Wool	£2,357,545
Hides	200,219
Copper Ore	105,962
Copper, partly wrought, &c.	61,135
Sheep Skins	24,775
Tallow	9,501
Tin Ore	7,800
Other Articles	100,313

Their progressive increase.

It is observable, that whilst the annual exports of New South Wales have rather decreased than otherwise since the discovery of gold, the exports of Victoria have steadily increased. They were in—

1854	£1,651,649
1855	1,798,790
1856	2,033,654
1857	2,472,479
1858	2,110,277
1859	2,427,820
1860	2,867,445

This is a very favourable symptom for the colony; showing that the mania for gold-finding has not superseded other efforts to develop its resources.

Our exportations to Victoria consisted in 1860 of the following long list of articles, the total value of which amounted to no less than 5,800,000*l*.

Articles exported to Victoria.

EXPORTS TO VICTORIA, 1860.

Apparel	£912,765
Iron	576,382
Leather Goods	525,297
Butter and Cheese	318,792
Woollen Goods	315,745
Cotton ,,	299,732
Beer and Ale	285,195
Hardwares and Cutlery	204,901
Stationery	156,616
Bacon and Hams	145,020
Soap and Candles	111,305
Corn and Flour	88,286
Steam Engines	86,830
Glass Manufactures	85,942
Silk Goods	85,309
Brandy	80,598
Hats	73,973
Machinery	73,146
Printed Books	61,019
Wine	60,434
Drugs	60,358
Saddlery and Harness	53,542
Pickles and Sauces	48,692
Stearine Candles	46,402
Earthenware	41,938
Confectionery	39,665
Linens	£34,492
Furniture	31,898
Empty Bags	28,723
Straw Hats and Bonnets	25,120
Gin	24,856
Currants	23,080
Musical Instruments	20,487
Plate and Jewellery	18,362
Wood, ready sawn	16,961
Lead and Shot	16,520
Rum	15,809
Quicksilver	12,771
Cigars	8,095
Raisins	7,659
Olive Oil	6,132
Gloves	6,088
Tobacco	5,147
Wooden Wares	5,022
Corks	4,480
Succades	3,417
Foreign Ribbons	3,318
Chicory, roasted	3,284
Coffee	2,106
Tea	1,794
Rice	1,226
Unenumerated Articles	636,264

Apparel.

The large proportion of ready-made wearing apparel in the lists of exports to Australia is very remarkable, and shows the large extent to which the export tailors of the East-end of London are employed for colonial purposes. These wholesale and export houses, it will be recollected, are the employers of those sempstresses and tailoresses whom we have been anxious, for many years past, to emigrate to these very colonies, in consequence of the unremunerative character of their labour at home, and the extent to which they overstock the London labour market. It is curious also to notice the great quantity of "butter and cheese" sent to this colony: which is said to arise from the temperature being ordinarily too hot for good dairy operations. Even more observable is the quantity of bacon and hams exported. These, it is to be presumed, are mostly for the diggings, where "a rasher" would probably be the *ne plus ultra* of cookery. Victoria is one of the very few portions of the globe with which we trade in which the quantity of woollen goods consumed is in excess of the quantity of cottons. This is the more singular, considering the climate. The stationery and printed books, which form two heavy items, speak well for the intelligence of the colony. On the other hand, the very great quantity of brandy and other spirituous liquors sent out (despite a heavy colonial duty of 10*s*. per gallon on importation) is to be deplored. Taking the population of the colony in 1856 at 500,000, the importation of spirituous liquors from England in that year was at the rate of nearly *four gallons* per head per annum for every man, woman, and child, in the colony: and although the quantity imported was not so great in 1860, that does not appear to have proceeded from diminished consumption.

Butter and cheese.

Bacon and hams.

Woollens.

Stationery, &c.

Spirits.

Victoria, at present, stands at the head of all our colonies in regard to commerce: her total imports and exports from and to all portions of the world

The present

amounting to very nearly 30,000,000*l.* annually. It is somewhat hazardous to make predictions of the future trade of a colony so largely dependent as Victoria is upon its gold-fields. The industry of its settled population, the increase of its raw productions, and the large sums which have been and are still being expended upon public works,* are, however, indications of a prosperous future, whatever may be the mineral development of the country.

and future of Victoria.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

Its copper mines.

SOUTH AUSTRALIA, which was settled under the auspices of an English Land Company, in 1836, mainly owes its prosperity to the discovery of copper and lead mines in 1842 and 1843, by two gentlemen who had gone out as settlers (Mr. Dutton and Mr. Bagot). These gentlemen combined to buy the land which contained these great mineral riches, and which comprehended what are now known as the copper mines of Kapunda. This land, to the extent of eighty acres, they purchased at the Government price, 1*l.* an acre, and some time after refused to sell for 27,000*l.* In 1852, the exports of copper ore, regulus, &c., from Port Adelaide, amounted to 9,984 tons; but the discovery of the gold-fields in the other colonies of Australia, by attracting many of the labourers from the copper mines, gave a serious check to their progress, and the quantity of copper since exported has been decreasing almost every year. On the other hand, it is gratifying to notice that the annual clip of wool in South Australia has largely increased.

Their progress checked by the gold discoveries.

Increase in the clip of wool.

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* It is computed that, in the last ten years, there has been expended in the Australian Colonies, on—

Railways	£8,000,000
Telegraphs	163,476
Roads and Bridges	5,272,620
Other Public Works	3,500,000
	£16,936,096

WOOL IMPORTED FROM SOUTH AUSTRALIA.

YEAR.	lb.
1852	3,922,318
1853	3,339,743
1854	4,395,957
1855	5,589,657
1856	5,976,796
1857	7,138,009
1858	7,464,351
1859	8,339,079
1860	9,769,474

Imports from,

Besides wool, our general imports from South Australia, in 1860, were of small account. The following is the complete list:—

IMPORTS FROM SOUTH AUSTRALIA, 1860.

Wool	valued at	£594,306
Copper	,,	121,838
Bark, for Tanning	,,	7,708
Hides	,,	4,986
Lead Ore	,,	200
Other Articles	,,	8,042

and exports to, the colony.

The principal exports were—

EXPORTS TO SOUTH AUSTRALIA, 1860.

Apparel	£154,053	Hats of other sorts	£13,863
Cotton Goods	72,550	Agricultural Implements	12,518
Woollen ,,	69,906	Tobacco and Cigars	12,290
Iron and Steel	67,644	Machinery	11,984
Leather	49,685	Wine	11,876
Hardwares and Cutlery	38,564	Linens	11,782
Empty Bags	25,119	Glass Manufactures	8,701
Soap and Candles	24,442	Drugs	8,116
Beer and Ale	23,174	Pickles and Sauces	7,440
Stationery	22,539	Butter and Cheese	6,817
Saddlery	15,387	Printed Books	6,383
Silk Manufactures	14,573	Furniture	5,204
Straw Hats	14,439	Earthenware	3,506

Present state of our trade.

The whole amount of our trade with this colony grew from about 500,000*l.* in 1852 to 1,616,000*l.* in 1860. The trade with South Australia at the present time is steady, and there is every probability of its being maintained. The land of the colony is rich, nearly

300,000 acres are under cultivation, and the population has risen to nearly 120,000. Considering that in 1840 the settlement may be said to have been utterly bankrupt, this state of things may be considered highly satisfactory.

WEST AUSTRALIA.

WEST AUSTRALIA (better known as the Swan River settlement) for many years suffered from very serious errors which were made in its original colonization, and is only just beginning to exhibit symptoms of commercial vitality. Compared with the sister colonies of this portion of the globe, West Australia made but slow progress, until 1859 and 1860, when its export of wool and copper ore was doubled—the former rising from 464,510lb. to 970,298lb., and the latter from a value of 9,350*l.* to 18,628*l.*: the total value of our imports from the colony being increased from 47,941*l.* in 1858 to 93,261*l.* in 1859, and 93,699*l.* in 1860. For a long period the produce of this colony was not sufficient to pay for the articles which we annually exported to it; but the tide now appears to be turning.

TASMANIA.

Commercial retrogression of this colony.

It is to be regretted that the same cannot be said of TASMANIA, or Van Diemen's Land,* which has suffered of late years from the taint and bad effect of having been a penal settlement, as well as from the emigration of its population to the gold-fields. Since 1856, Tasmania has certainly been retrograding as regards commerce. The trade of the colony in that year, as compared with 1860, was—

TRADE OF TASMANIA.

YEAR.	IMPORTS THEREFROM.	EXPORTS THERETO.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£
1856	576,296	741,512	1,317,808
1860	497,006	425,151	922,157

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* The name was changed, at the desire of the colonists, when Van Diemen's Land ceased to be a penal settlement.

All the principal articles we import from this colony have declined.

Importations from Tasmania.

	1856.	1860.
Wool	5,267,828 lb. . . .	4,415,516 lb.
Hides . . .	217,399 lb. . . .	140,683 lb.
Spermaceti Oil.	834 tons. . .	451 tons.

Its local trade with New South Wales and Victoria.

Since the gold discoveries in Australia, a trade in articles of food, which is proving lucrative to the population of Tasmania, has sprung up between that island and Sydney and Port Philip. In 1856, Tasmania sent to Australia flour, oats, potatoes, and fruits, to the value of nearly 324,000*l.* She also sent to Australia upwards of 600 horses, and a considerable quantity of timber. It is probable that this is a trade which will increase; though it may be questioned how far it will compensate the Tasmanian colonist for the decline in the production of wool, which is the most valuable staple of the colony.[*]

New Zealand.

Its rapid development.

Whilst Tasmania has declined, New Zealand has been exhibiting, during the last few years, an illustration of extraordinary colonial progress. The imports from this colony in the six years 1855—1860 inclusive, have increased upwards of twelve-fold! The statistics are—

Value of Imports from New Zealand.

	£		£
1855	33,190	1858	261,538
1856	100,644	1859	341,634
1857	157,220	1860	445,244

Wonderful increase in its exports of wool.

This wonderful increase has been chiefly in wool, of which the quantities and values exported during these years have been as follows:—

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[*] Large as is the value of the gold imported from our Australian colonies, it is worthy observation that the value of their wool is scarcely inferior. In 1860 they sent us Gold to the value of 6,719,857*l.*, Wool to the value of 5,387,078*l.* And the latter is a steadily increasing trade.

WOOL IMPORTED FROM NEW ZEALAND.

YEAR.	QUANTITY.	VALUE.
1854	299,383 lb.	£22,454
1855	358,493	27,821
1856	1,065,794	93,257
1857	1,608,564	140,146
1858	2,699,364	216,025
1859	4,060,556	309,097
1860	5,067,963	408,083

Increase in other imports from New Zealand.

All the other items imported from New Zealand have also risen during the same period, though not in the like proportion. In 1860, our imports were:—

Wool	valued at	£408,083
Gums	,,	14,173
Hewn Wood	,,	7,395
Spermaceti Oil	,,	3,177
Copper Ore	,,	1,493
Hides	,,	1,242
Flax	,,	889

Exports to the colony.

Of all the articles enumerated besides wool, the exportation from New Zealand, in 1855, only amounted in value to 3,646*l.* This increase in the prosperity of the colony is the more satisfactory, as up to 1860 the settlers were disturbed by their differences with the Maori tribes.

Comparative view of the exports to New Zealand and Tasmania.

The population of New Zealand and Tasmania being very nearly equal, it may be interesting to contrast the list and values of exports to the two colonies. It should be first observed, however, that our total exports to New Zealand have been increasing as rapidly as those of Tasmania have been declining. The following is the comparison :—

TOTAL EXPORTS TO NEW ZEALAND AND TASMANIA.

YEAR.	NEW ZEALAND.	TASMANIA.
1855	£276,376	£685,144
1856	400,489	741,512
1857	408,204	594,979
1858	542,186	646,239
1859	719,185	557,355
1860	663,848	425,151

New Zealand has thus been rising in almost precisely the proportion in which Tasmania has been declining.

VALUE OF EXPORTS TO NEW ZEALAND AND TASMANIA, 1860.

Comparative List.

ARTICLES.	NEW ZEALAND.	TASMANIA.
	£	£
Apparel, &c.	117,241	90,736
Iron	50,280	20,501
Leather	35,527	17,738
Woollen Goods	33,573	23,145
Hardwares and Cutlery	30,451	15,450
Beer and Ale	29,641	19,533
Cotton Manufactures	27,583	25,888
Tobacco	23,438	16,484
Tea	20,910	10,284
Wine	18,405	5,951
Stationery	16,269	9,698
Soap and Candles	15,959	9,181
Saddlery	14,756	4,878
Furniture	11,969	3,102
Printed Books	11,028	7,177
Agricultural Implements	10,114	—
Brandy	9,726	3,418
Machinery	9,196	2,933
Glass Manufactures	8,522	6,370
Empty Bags	6,137	4,263
Rum	5,942	5,158
Steam Engines	5,867	530
Coals	5,757	—
Sugar, refined	5,679	6,635
Pickles and Sauces	5,444	4,408
Musical Instruments	5,041	2,992
Linens	4,630	5,546
Silks	4,809	5,613
Earthenware	4,499	5,265
Gin	3,888	—
Coffee	1,187	4,406
Currants	1,375	1,303
Raisins	975	1,092
Drugs	—	6,144
Hats	—	4,557
Corn and Flour	—	5,354
Lead and Shot	—	3,465
Copper	—	2,277
Plate and Jewellery	—	1,894
Butter and Cheese	—	1,352

Our West India Colonies.

The commerce of our West India colonies has been subjected to various vicissitudes, owing principally, it must be admitted, to changes of public feeling at home, and alterations in the character of our legislation. At one time the British Parliament has fostered a particular manufacture in these colonies, and has afforded the settlers the most undue advantages with a view to its encouragement. At another period Parliament has deprived them of their exclusive privileges, and forced them into an unequal competition with countries possessed of the advantages which they have lost. For a number of years they were encouraged to supply themselves with slaves from Africa. Then, with no little inconsistency, they were compelled toforego that supply, whilst competing countries continued it; and whilst the West Indian colonists themselves were permitted to retain in slavery those they had already imported and their descendants, whom we recognised as British subjects! Then, after the lapse of a quarter of a century, Great Britain insisted on the emancipation of slave labour in her own colonies, and, at the same time, threw open her ports to the produce of that labour from every other quarter of the world. That this legislation was proper and desirable, no wise man can doubt. But right and desirable as it was, it was highly inconsistent; and, so far as the British colonists were concerned, eminently unjust. It was the more so, because, whilst on the one hand the Imperial Parliament discouraged the trade it had created, it did nothing to develop the other resources of the West India Islands, or to direct the inhabitants into other fields of enterprise.

Conflicting legislation in regard to them.

Errors of the colonists.

Whilst our own changes of policy have been detrimental to the prosperity of the West Indies, it must be admitted, however, that the conduct of the colonists themselves has been infinitely more so. The whole history of these islands bears testimony to the fact that they have been regarded not as countries to be settled and cultivated with a view to permanent occupation, but simply as convenient localities for forcing labour and forcing a soil—out of which the largest profit was to be made in the shortest possible period—to be borne away to the mother-country and there expended in profusion. In the proper sense of the term, there have never been British "settlers" in the West Indies. Young men went out to the islands, a few with capital, the majority without. They took lands, procured slaves, planted the sugar-cane, enforced a manufacture requiring great labour in a country in which the climate opposes much exertion—made rapid fortunes out of the soil and out of the hardly driven slaves—and then came home to England to spend the proceeds. The planters never settled in the country. They seldom married in it, or established homes. Nothing is rarer in the West Indies than a white family of any descent. Almost the only descendants of white settlers are the illegitimate descendants of white fathers by coloured mothers.

The islands not colonized with a view to permanent residence.

The first evil consequence of the absentee system was, that the estates gradually fell into the hands of agents, attorneys, and other subordinates, whose expenses absorbed the profits. These agents naturally failed to feel the same interest with the proprietor in the working of the property, or the management of the labourers employed on it. Under them, therefore, all the errors of a system inherently bad were largely exaggerated. The productiveness of the properties gradually declined, without any means being taken to improve them. The working expenses annually increased, without any resort being had to machinery

Evil effects of the absentee system.

as a substitute for labour. Neither was any attempt made to improve the habits of those upon whose labour the islands were dependent.

At no period have the planters sought the improvement of the moral, social, or religious condition of the population under their charge; on the contrary, they have set their faces against the religious teaching and educational instruction of the coloured population, and have even persecuted those who sought to afford it to them. In their treatment of their labourers, they have aimed solely and exclusively at obtaining from them the largest amount of labour at the smallest possible cost.

Its ultimate consequence, the decline of the islands.

The consequence of this state of things has been, that whilst the natural resources of the West India Islands have not been developed, their forced cultivation of sugar has decayed. This was to be expected. It is to be borne in mind that these islands have by no means always been sugar-producing colonies. On the contrary, it was only at a comparatively recent period that they became so. Up to 1790, the greater proportion of the supplies of sugar from the West Indies came from St. Domingo, where the sugar cultivation under the French had been exceedingly successful and profitable. Prior to that time, the cultivation of sugar had been by no means universal in our own colonies; and it was only when the revolution of the blacks destroyed the sugar estates of St. Domingo,*

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* The French portion of St. Domingo contained, in 1790 :—

Plantations of	Sugar	793
,,	Coffee	3,117
,,	Cotton	789
,,	Indigo	3,160
,,	Cocoa	54
,,	Grain and Vegetables	623
	TOTAL	8,536

that the colonists of the British West India Islands devoted themselves so largely to the planting of the cane. The exports of Jamaica for the first century after we settled it in 1655, were chiefly cocoa, hides, and indigo. In 1772, Jamaica only exported 11,000 hogsheads of sugar. After the revolution in St. Domingo, her exports rose to an average of 83,000 hogsheads; and from that time the production was so greatly extended, that in 1801 and 1802, Jamaica produced no less than 143,000 hogsheads in each year. Sugar, therefore, was a forced and not a natural product of these colonies, and the cultivation of other gifts of nature to these islands has been neglected in order to produce sugar under the artificial stimulus given to its manufacture by British legislation.

Non-development of the other resources of the islands.

A consideration of these circumstances will abate the surprise which might otherwise be felt, that since the abolition of slavery and the equalization of the sugar duties, the commerce of these islands has declined. The decline has, of course, been greatest in those islands in which sugar has hitherto been most largely cultivated. That which is most to be regretted, however, in reference to these islands, is that little or nothing has been done to stimulate their trade in other directions besides that of sugar-making. The black population of these islands, if they are less industrious than other human beings, are not less influenced by other passions common to our nature. They are as anxious to make money, as emulous of position amongst their neighbours, and as fond of display and finery, as other people. In the quarter of a century which has elapsed since the emancipation

The new class of proprietors of

The population was 30,831 whites (exclusive of troops and sailors), 434,429 negro slaves on the estates, 46,000 negro mechanics and servants in the towns, and 24,000 free people of colour. The produce exported was valued, at an annual average, at half a million sterling.

the soil which has arisen in the larger islands.

of the slaves, more than 100,000 coloured persons have become *free holders of the soil* in Jamaica, and they are officially represented to be living with their families on their respective properties, "working "hard, living thriftily, and endeavouring to accumu-"late real capital." A recent report of the Governor-General represents that these people "work dili-"gently when they cultivate the soil on their own "account; that they are rising into an independent, "respectable, and trustworthy middle class; and "are even becoming employers of hired labour." Now, it is quite clear, that it only requires enterprise to make these persons, and others of their class, bring to market products which would be highly acceptable to us, and receive in exchange articles suited for their consumption. When we complain of the apathy of the black population of the West Indies, we really ought to ask ourselves, What have we done since slavery was abolished to stimulate them into energy and enterprise? The true answer will probably be found to be that trade has done little or nothing to extend itself in the West Indies during the last quarter of a century—that it has remained very much in the old currents (sometimes sufficiently sluggish), without seeking new channels—and that the consequence has been that we have afforded to the free coloured population of the West India Islands no opportunities for exchanging with us the natural products of their soil. If this be so, it would fully account for the decline of our West India trade, even in the face of an increased black population.

Their enterprise not hitherto stimulated by commercial inducements.

Statistics of commerce with our West India colonies.

Without going further into this question, which may be commended to the attentive consideration of persons of enterprise seeking to embark in a new trade, we proceed to give the statistics of our commerce with the West Indies. In 1860 our trade with the fifteen islands which compose our West India colonies,* was represented by the following figures :—

Imports from the West Indies	£4,399,917
Exports to the West Indies	2,020,768
TOTAL TRADE	£6,420,685

This appears to have been about the average amount of our West India trade for the past ten years; neither the totals nor the items exhibiting any material increase or decrease during that period. The following are the items :—

Imports and exports.

IMPORTS.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS.	VALUED AT
Sugar and Molasses . . .	£3,507,762	Cotton Goods	£472,032
Rum	377,748	Apparel, &c.	178,727
Coffee	120,320	Iron	101,471
Cocoa	113,329	Linens	96,518
Logwood	38,724	Soap and Candles	93,045
Pimento	32,030	Beer and Ale	70,952
Ginger	30,635	Leather	69,043

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* The following is a list of our present possessions in the West Indies :—

	ISLAND.	PRESENT POPULATION.	WHEN ACQUIRED BY THE BRITISH.	CIRCUMSTANCES ATTENDING ACQUISITION.
			A.D.	
1	Jamaica	377,433	1655	Conquest from Spain.
2	Barbadoes	135,939	1625	Colonized.
3	Trinidad	68,600	1797	Conquest from Spain.
4	Antigua	36,000	1632	Colonized.
5	Grenada	35,517	1763	Conquest from France.
6	St. Vincent	30,128	1763	Ditto.
7	St. Lucia	30,000	1796	Ditto.
8	The Bahamas . . .	27,619	1629	Colonized.
9	Dominica	25,023	1763	Conquest from France.
10	St. Kitts	20,741	1623	Colonized.
11	Tobago	16,363	1763	Conquest from France.
12	Nevis	9,571	1628	Colonized.
13	Montserrat	7,053	1632	Ditto.
14	Tortola, &c.	6,053	1680	Ditto.
15	Turks' Island . . .	3,300	—	Dependency of Jamaica.

The West India islands.

IMPORTS FROM. *[continued.]* EXPORTS TO.

IMPORTS FROM.	VALUED AT
Arrowroot	£29,987
Raw Cotton[*]	27,280
Sponge	10,125
Fustic	8,830
Cocoa Nuts	7,841
Hides	6,703
Tortoiseshell	3,620
Tamarinds	3,356
Aloes	1,036
Wine	803
Mahogany	516
Other Articles, unenumerated	79,266

EXPORTS TO.	VALUED AT
Woollen Goods	£67,692
Hardwares and Cutlery	59,296
Machinery	49,797
Casks, Staves, and Hoops	46,932
Rice	41,586
Wine	37,781
Butter	33,676
Corn and Flour	32,579
Coals, &c.	26,875
Earthenware	23,652
Glass	22,725
Silk Manufactures	21,252
Brandy	20,835
Sugar, refined[†]	19,211
Copper	19,054
Saddlery	19,012
Hats	17,925
Stationery	17,219
Drugs	16,987
Steam Engines	16,499
Guano	13,594
Cordage and Cables	10,872
Painters' Colours	9,268
Tea	5,010

Sugar and rum.

It will be seen that sugar and rum constitute three-fourths of our entire imports from these colonies.[‡]

Our duties on sugars

The sugar received from our West India colonies is almost entirely classified as of second and third rate qualities. It will be borne in mind that since April, 1857, the duties upon sugar have been levied at 16*s.*, 13*s.* 10*d.*, and 12*s.* 8*d.* per cwt., according to their qualities respectively. The West India sugars have reached us in the following comparative proportions:—

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[*] It is gratifying to find the importation of raw cotton from these islands on the increase. The cotton plant is indigenous to Jamaica, Barbadoes, the Bahamas, and other islands, and, before sugar-planting, formed a considerable item of export.

[†] That these sugar-exporting islands should find themselves under the necessity of importing annually 20,000*l.* worth of refined sugar is very much owing to our vicious legislation at home. The additional duties imposed in this country on refined sugar, with a view to "protect" our own sugar refiners, have had the effect of preventing the sugar growers in our colonies from establishing refineries, and have consequently compelled them to send home their sugars in the raw state, whereby they incurred additional charges for freight, &c.

[‡] For a comparative view of the quantities of sugar imported from the British West Indies and other parts of the world, vide ante pages 331, 332.

levied according to their qualities.

QUALITIES.	TOTAL IMPORTED.	FROM THE BRITISH WEST INDIES.	FROM BRITISH GUIANA.	FROM THE MAURITIUS.
	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.	Cwt.
1. "White Clayed"	86,516	86	10,096	14,056
2. "Yellow Muscavado" . . .	3,745,286	780,997	295,159	636,243
3. "Brown Muscavado" . . .	4,985,475	1,710,037	579,235	513,433
Molasses . . .	606,503	225,246	10,987	none

Effect of these duties on the manufacture of sugar.

It is complained, and with apparent justice, that this system of classification is unjust to the Mauritius and other first-class sugar producing localities, and is highly prejudicial to the manufacture of good sugar. In the Mauritius, where new machinery and improved modes of working have enabled the colonists to produce a better article, it is said that the English practice of levying the highest duty on the best article, obliges the inhabitants to send all their best sugars to France and Australia, and their worst qualities only to the British markets. The object of this classification is to benefit our sugar refiners at home; but it is obvious that the effect must also be to prevent improvement in sugar manufacture in the colonies. Both the consumer at home, and the sugar grower abroad, have a right to complain of a system which offers a premium upon the importation of an inferior article, merely to afford some small interest an opportunity of "refining" it. Upon this point the following extracts from a report of the Mauritius Chamber of Agriculture, published 12th November, 1861, is well worthy attention:—

Report of the Mauritius Chamber of Agriculture on the sugar duties.

"'What can be more arbitrary and more uncertain than the principle of an *ad valorem* duty dependent on the colour of a sugar? How can the just limit be established between the colour which is to pay one and the colour which is to pay the other duty? The Custom House officer is thus left the sole arbiter to fix the duty. One officer in cloudy weather will class the same sugar differently from his colleague, who will examine it in sunshine. Two parcels of the same quality will be taxed 16*s.* in London, and 13*s.* 10*d.* in Liverpool. This happens frequently. What is remarkable is, that the better the sugar, the greater the uncertainty, the doubt, the error, and the contradiction of the classification.' 'The example of France ought to inspire the Government with confidence, and enlighten it in this respect. Need we mention that the refineries of Paris, Havre, Nantes, Bordeaux, and Marseilles, are in full prosperity under a legislature which divides sugar into two classes only. The Committee go still further, and think that the British refiner himself would gain by a change in accordance with the system adopted in France; at the present time he cannot procure the raw material so cheap as the French refiner, as the latter purchases in this colony the finest sugars, which pay 16*s.* duty in England, at the same price as the British refiner pays for inferior quality which pay 13*s.* 10*d.* in England.' Besides being a premium on bad manipulation, the duty is an obstacle to the improvements in machinery; for what is really the use of improvement when the improved article becomes a disadvantage to the employer of the improvement? What Lord Mansfield long ago said of the Insurance laws, applies equally well to the differential sugar duties. 'The property and daily negotiations of merchants ought not to depend upon subtleties and niceties, but upon rules easily learned and easily retained.'"

Other items imported from the West Indies.

As compared with 1852, the production of sugar and rum in the West Indies appears stationary. All the other articles imported from these islands have diminished in the same period, except raw cotton, fustic, logwood, ginger, cocoa-nuts, tamarinds, and tortoiseshell: tamarinds and cocoa-nuts being the articles upon which there has been the largest increase.

There is, however, some significancy and hope to be derived even from these facts. There can be very little doubt that many of the West India Islands are admirably adapted for the growth of cotton, and that we may obtain from them (Jamaica more especially) very abundant supplies, if a little pains is taken with the cultivation. The sooner the same island is cleared of its dye-woods the better, and, therefore, the increased exportation of fustic and logwood may be regarded as satisfactory. But what is a better feature than all, is the increased exportation from the West Indies of their fruits. These islands may be considered "the gardens" of the tropics. If a little attention were paid to their growth, there is no amount of valuable plants and fruits which they might not produce in the greatest abundance, and to the greatest profit. The difficulty attending the exportation of fruits, in time past, has been the length of the voyage; but this is obviated by steam communication, and there is no reason why the West Indies should not supply the London market with pine-apples, custard apples, the guava, limes, oranges, shaddocks, the forbidden fruit, cocoa-nuts, melons, &c. to an extent which would make pine-apples as cheap as pears to the English fruit-eater. In the same way with turtle. The markets of Jamaica are supplied with turtle at the price of beef (8*d.* per lb.); and as the tortoise, with a little care, can be brought here alive, there is no reason why we should not have turtle in London at a cost not exceeding that of salmon.

Cotton.

Dye-woods.

Fruits.

Turtle.

The undeveloped resources of the West Indies do not, however, rest here. There can be no question that many of them contain the elements of great wealth. Mining speculation has already been directed with success to Jamaica, and also to the Virgin Islands,

Undeveloped resources of the West Indies.

Minerals in the Virgin Islands.

(dependencies of Antigua.) From the copper mines of Gorda, in one of the latter islands, ore was raised some few years since, which yielded 18 per cent. of marketable metal, and realized at Swansea a price of 16*l*. 1*s*. 6*d*. per ton. Trinidad is well known to contain a most remarkable mineral phenomenon in its Asphaltum, or Pitch Lake, about a mile and a half in circumference, which is situated on a small peninsula jutting about two miles into the sea at the south-west extremity of the island. The usual consistency of the asphaltum at the sides of this lake is that of pit coal; but it melts like sealing-wax under a gentle heat, and acquires fluidity when mixed with grease or oil. Approaching the middle of the lake, however, the ground becomes softer and softer, until at last the pitch is seen boiling up in a liquid state, the flow being immense, and the whole country round being covered with it. Some use has been made of the pitch in Trinidad in repairing roads, &c. but, strange to say, this great natural development has never yet been turned to commercial account.*

The Pitch Lake of Trinidad.

The Pozzolani of St. Vincent.

The comparatively small and unproductive island of St. Vincent has been teaching a lesson to the other West India Islands for some years past, by exporting quantities of pozzolani, which, mixed with two-thirds of lime, produces an excellent hydraulic mortar and cement. It is shipped at the rate of 8*l*. per ton. The people of the Bahamas have applied themselves to raising pine-apples, oranges, and other fruits for the American markets. Unfortunately, however,

The fruits of the Bahama Islands.

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* It is stated that some years since an Admiral on the West Indian station sent two ship-loads of this pitch to England, but that "after a variety of experiments it was found necessary, in order to render the pitch fit for use, to mix so much oil with it, that the cost of the oil alone exceeded the price of pitch in England." Obviously, however, this is a very insufficient ground on which to determine the value of this commodity. We are not to look alone to "the price of pitch in England," but to the new uses to which such a material as the asphaltum, found in Trinidad, might be profitably turned.

Wrecking on the coast of the Bahama islands.

these islands are demoralized by the profits which a portion of their inhabitants derive from following the vocation of "wreckers." "Neither agriculture nor "manufactures," it is said, "offer any profits com-"pared with those obtained from this calling, which "distributes prizes among all parts of the population "alike, puts all on a level, and affords opportunities "of every self-indulgence." "As I have frequently "had to remark," writes the Governor of the Bahamas in a recent report, "wrecking involves crime and "connivance at crime. But I doubt whether the "treacherous plots which are so successfully laid for "the destruction of vessels are generally known to "any but the commanders of the wrecking vessels "and the masters of the wrecked ships. The crews, I "imagine, have a general rather than a special know-"ledge of the schemes which bring the merchant-"vessels and the parasitic wrecker close together near "a reef."

Tobacco.

The plant not cultivated in our West India Colonies, although indigenous.

From the lists of imports, it would not appear that anything has been done towards promoting the cultivation of tobacco in our West Indies. This is somewhat curious, considering the position of the islands, and the increasing consumption of the commodity in Europe. The tobacco plant grows wild in almost every garden in Jamaica, and there is no reason why that colony should not produce tobacco equal to that of the adjacent island of Cuba. As the tobacco supply has not been previously mentioned, it may be interesting here to give a list of the countries from which our supply is obtained. It will be seen that, except a very small quantity from the East Indies, our whole supply, in the year 1860, was of foreign production.

Our supply of Tobacco.

From whence derived.

IMPORTS OF TOBACCO, 1860.

FROM WHENCE.	QUANTITY IMPORTED.	RETAINED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	DUTY RECEIVED AT 3*s.* 1¾*d.* PER LB.
	Lb.	Lb.	£	£
United States	40,484,405	26,838,030	1,181,182	4,227,088
Holland	3,236,824	2,665,263	84,085	419,779
Turkey	1,197,834	1,147,230	26,569	180,689
Buenos Ayres	793,695	1,949,503	25,174	307,052
Cuba	615,172	384,403	92,305	60,543
New Granada	479,838	209,024	36,972	32,921
British East Indies	480,438	84,140	4,200	13,252
Bremen	398,378	505,040	9,968	79,544
France	359,538	223,996	8,765	35,279
Channel Islands	239,805	230,345	6,735	36,280
Other Parts	650,544	869,667	18,562	136,973
TOTAL	48,936,471	35,106,641	£1,494,517	£5,529,400

Imports of Manufactured Tobacco.

IMPORTS OF CIGARS, 1860.

FROM WHENCE.	QUANTITY IMPORTED.	RETAINED FOR HOME CONSUMPTION.	VALUE OF IMPORTS.	DUTY RECEIVED AT 9*s.* 5½*d.* PER LB.
	Lb.	Lb.	£	£
Cuba	344,676	219,789	199,093	103,846
United States	1,951,146	12,658	62,687	5,981
Brazil	241,987	495	9,120	234
Holland	50,092	2,283	1,672	1,079
Philippine Islands	29,096	26,986	7,590	12,751
Other Parts	109,108	43,835	2,953	20,713
TOTAL	2,726,105	306,046	£283,115	£144,604

Great difference in the commercial value of Cigars of different countries.

The great difference in the value of the cigars and tobacco of different countries will be seen and observed. The cigars of Cuba are estimated at a value of 11*s.* 7*d.* per lb., and those of the Philippine Islands at 5*s.* 2½*d.*, whilst the manufactured tobacco of the

United States is only valued at 7¾*d.*, and that of Brazil at 9*d.* per lb. The duty upon manufactured, as distinguished from unmanufactured tobacco, is also observable. It is questionable whether our tobacco duties are not altogether pitched too high. Tobacco is now, it is believed, almost the only item in our tariff which affords a temptation to the smuggler; and so extensive is his trade in the article, that it is supposed that one-half the cigars consumed in Great Britain are made of tobacco which has been smuggled into this country from France and the Channel Islands. If the revenue could be collected, however, it must be admitted that there is no article of commerce more fairly subject to duty than tobacco.

Our Tobacco duties.

With regard to our exports to the West Indies, it will be seen that one-fourth the supply is in the form of cotton-goods for the use of the coloured population. The Apparel which we export is chiefly for the use of the whites, as are the linens, soap and candles, beer and ale, and leather. The woollen goods are for the dresses of the male negroes, who usually make up their own clothing of rough Penistone cloths. The hardware chiefly assumes the form of hoes, &c. for the cultivation of the ground, and the casks, staves, and hoops, are for the sugar manufacture. It is a satisfactory indication to find machinery being exported in such considerable quantities. That formerly in use in these islands was of the most inferior description, and great waste consequently ensued in the manufacture of the sugar.

Our exports to the West India islands.

Apparel.

Woollens.

Hardwares.

Machinery

The British colonies on the main coast of America, which we took from the Dutch in 1803, and which are now comprehensively known as BRITISH GUIANA, comprise the settlements on the rivers Essequibo, Demerara, and Berbice. This territory has the advantage of a rich alluvial soil, which requires

Trade with BRITISH GUIANA.

much less labour in working than that of our other sugar colonies. The lands in cultivation are scarcely above the sea level. They are protected, as in the Netherlands, by a series of dykes. Unlike the West India Islands, this country, since the emancipation of the blacks, has increased its white population; but a very considerable proportion of its property has fallen into the hands of the coloured people, who are said to have acquired upwards of 500 estates, and to have built upon them 15,000 houses. Following the example of the Mauritius, the colonists of British Guiana have, however, imported, since the emancipation of the slaves, a large number of coolies and Chinese labourers, and by them and the use of improved machinery they have been able to manufacture sugar in greater quantities, and of superior qualities to that produced in most of our West India islands. That the colony is doing well is proved by the rise which has occurred in its commerce during the last five years:—

Its increase.

TRADE WITH BRITISH GUIANA.

	1856.	1860.
Imports therefrom . . .	£1,418,264 . . .	£1,595,106
Exports thereto . . .	452,489 . . .	617,626
	£1,870,753	£2,212,732

The increase, it will be observed, is chiefly in our exports to the colony; and it is satisfactory to find that the articles in which that rise is greatest, are those which are used by the working population. The lists of imports from and exports to British Guiana, in 1860, was as follows:—

BRITISH GUIANA.

Imports and exports.

IMPORTS FROM.

	VALUED AT
Sugar and Molasses	£1,209,378
Rum	301,031
Wood, for Ship Building	54,021
Raw Cotton	8,825
Cocoa Nuts	3,000
Rice	7*

EXPORTS TO.

	VALUED AT
Cotton Manufactures	£100,271
Apparel, &c.	60,467
Casks, Hoops, and Staves	33,280
Beer and Ale	32,264
Iron	31,283
Machinery	30,213
Butter	25,465
Leather and Saddlery	22,290
Hardwares and Cutlery	20,192
Coals	15,857
Steam Engines	15,240
Linens	14,426
Woollen Goods	12,890
Soap and Candles	12,321
Earthenware	12,129
Rice	10,663
Drugs	9,954
Wine	8,188
Glass Manufactures	7,880
Copper	6,071
Brandy	5,723
Corn and Flour	4,987
Hats	4,962
Stationery	4,792
Cordage	3,957
Silks	3,787
Painters' Colours	3,735

Trade with our HONDURAS Settlements.

From the British settlement in the bay of Honduras, of which Belize* is the principal commercial town, we obtain the largest quantities of mahogany now procurable, together with woods of other sorts.

Mahogany.

Mahogany, which was first introduced into England so lately as 1724, is now so largely used in the manufacture of furniture that it becomes an important article of commerce. The trade has hitherto been engrossed upon the spot by four or five influential firms. Two of these failed in 1859, and the result was considerable embarrassment in Belize. In 1860, we imported mahogany as follows:—

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* Rice is grown in this colony to a considerable extent, but is chiefly used for home consumption. In 1857, however, it was sent to England to the extent of 18,186*l.* It will be seen from the account upon the other side that, in 1860, we exported 10,000*l.* of the article to this colony.

* This town and the river on which it is situated are said to take their name from one "Willis," a famous buccaneer, who settled on the banks of the river in 1638: and whose name the Mosquito Indians corrupted.

Imports of Mahogany.

FROM WHENCE.	TONS.	VALUE.
		£
Honduras	20,165	216,389
Mexico	9,050	96,652
Hayti	5,829	84,473
Cuba	5,170	58,160
Central America	2,128	22,826
Other Parts	2,368	24,951
TOTALS	44,710	£503,451

Duties upon, and character of, different woods.

For a long period there was a differential duty in favour of Honduras, and against foreign and other colonial mahoganies; which we are glad to say is now repealed, and without, as the above table shows, diminishing our Honduras trade. The fact is, that the Honduras mahogany, whilst it is softer, coarser, and less susceptible of polish than the woods of Cuba, Hayti, and Jamaica, is easier to work, and holds glue better, and is consequently better adapted for veneers, whilst that from the islands is better fitted for solid furniture.

Imports from, and exports to, Honduras.

The following were our imports from, and exports to, this colony, in 1860, in which year the settlement was recovering from the effects of the failures before adverted to, which had greatly depressed it in 1859:—

TRADE WITH HONDURAS, 1860.

	£
Imports from	309,191
Exports to	153,666
Total Trade	£462,857

HONDURAS.

Imports and exports.

IMPORTS FROM.	VALUED AT
Mahogany	£216,389
Cochineal	34,467
Logwood	31,969
Silver Ore*	12,070
Cocoa Nuts	3,638
Indigo	3,336
Fustic	3,262
Rosewood	1,249
Sarsaparilla	1,227
Other Articles	1,584

EXPORTS TO.	VALUED AT
Cotton Goods	£71,936
Apparel	24,615
Silks, Home and Foreign	7,866
Hardwares	7,170
Linens	4,700
Earthenware	3,194
Soap	2,831
Woollens	2,709
Leather	2,135
Iron	2,079
Guns and Gunpowder	1,650
Copper	1,533
Cordage	1,213
Cotton Yarn	928
Wine	896
Beer and Ale	719

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* Probably this was smuggled out of Mexico to Belize for shipment.

Character of the commerce of Belize.

Belize was formerly a considerable entrepôt for British trade with Mexico, and what was called the Spanish Main. This trade, however, has given way to a great extent to a more direct commerce. This is not to be regretted, although it may have had the immediate effect of depressing the colony. The fact is, that in the mahogany trade alone, this settlement might find ample field for development. The articles made of this wood are in increasing demand in England, both for home consumption and for export; and besides that there is no wood to be obtained equal to mahogany for the purposes to which it is applied, our furniture manufacture admits of the application of a larger quantity of solid wood than upholsterers are now accustomed to use in ordinary articles.

Shipping employed in the West India trade.

Our trade with the West Indies and Honduras employed, in 1860, 814 vessels, of 250,486 tons burden. Of these all but 55 were British, so that the shipowners have no reason to complain that foreigners have in any way interfered with our West

India shipping trade. London does more than half this trade: Liverpool and Greenock the bulk of the other half. The figures as regards this shipping may be interesting:—

SHIPPING ENTERED INWARDS FROM THE WEST INDIES, 1860.

PORT.	VESSELS.	TONNAGE.
London	471	143,325
Liverpool	129	40,322
Greenock	73	26,645
Bristol	46	10,849
Dublin	23	5,885
Cork	8	1,680
Glasgow	3	1,138
Leith	3	938
Belfast	3	751
All other Ports	55	18,953
TOTAL	814	250,486

Trade with our NORTH AMERICAN colonies.

The British colonies in NORTH AMERICA are second only to those in Australia, in regard to the amount of commerce transacted with the mother-country. In 1860, our commerce with Canada, New Brunswick, Nova Scotia, Prince Edward's Island, and Newfoundland, amounted to a total of 10,496,769*l.*: (say) ten millions and a half sterling. The following table will show how this total was distributed:—

PROVINCES.	IMPORTS FROM.	EXPORTS TO.
	£	£
Canada	4,422,556	2,266,918
New Brunswick	1,536,447	425,934
Prince Edward's Island	54,797	82,578
Nova Scotia and Cape Breton	144,130	575,219
Newfoundland	484,005	504,185
TOTALS	£6,641,935	£3,854,834

CANADA.

Our trade with CANADA, in 1860, may be supposed to have been in a transition state, in consequence of our equalization in that year of the differential duties which had previously prevailed in this country on foreign and colonial timber. Since the year 1808, when a duty was first laid upon Baltic timber in order to encourage the timber trade of our colonies in North America, the timber of Canada has had access to the English market at rates of duty varying at different periods, but at all times sufficient to give the Canadian timber great advantage in respect to price. There can be no doubt that this has been highly detrimental to British commerce. By partially excluding the timbers of Sweden and Norway, Prussia, Russia, and other countries near to us, we have, during the greater part of the present century, seriously damaged our trade with the Baltic, whilst precluding ourselves from purchasing in what to us was both the best and cheapest market for the article.

Our timber duties.

Their injurious effects on our Baltic trade.

Perhaps there was no article in the whole range of those protected by differential duties, of which the repeal took so long and cost so much trouble as the protective duty in favour of Canadian timber. It was continually represented that this duty was absolutely necessary to the colony, and to British shipping: that large capital had been invested on the strength of its continuance, and that its repeal would throw thousands of hands engaged in the timber trade in North America wholly out of employment. It was difficult at any time to see how an extension of trade of any sort could be detrimental to British shipping; and it was at all times very questionable whether the capital and labour of our North American colonies might not be invested to

The colonial argument in favour of differential duties.

Its fallacy.

more profit than in felling and squaring timber for consumption in Europe. But our colonial and shipping interests insisted on the maintenance of these differential duties, and it was consequently only in 1860 that the free-trade interest found itself strong enough to obtain their removal. The effect has yet to be seen. Up to the present time, there has been no falling-off in the importation of timber from British North America. The only effect has been a largely increased importation of timber from all the wood-exporting countries, in which increase British North America has shared in due proportion.

Effects of the equalization.

Importance of the colonial timber trade,

That the timber trade of our North American colonies is a highly important trade to Great Britain nobody can doubt. Besides being of consequence as regards amount, we derive a great advantage from having in our own possessions the largest field for timber in the world. Timber, though no longer absolutely necessary to us, as it once was, for shipbuilding, is of vast importance in the construction of our machinery, warehouses, dwellings, &c.; and it is most desirable, in order to keep its price at a fair level, that we should have the advantage of that large colonial supply which enables us to control the prices of the Baltic timber-growers.* But, for this object, it was by no means needed, nor indeed was it desirable, that we should have differential rates of duty; which not only enhanced the price of all classes of timber to the British consumer, but actually

apart from injurious differential duties.

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* In 1703, the Pitch and Tar Company of Sweden endeavoured to raise the price of their commodities to England, by prohibiting their exportation, except in their own ships, at their own price, and in such quantities as they thought proper. To counteract this, England gave a bounty on the importation of naval stores from America, which secured the revenue at home, encouraged the clearing of land, and rendered England independent as to her supplies.

favoured the article which in every respect was the most inferior in quality. For, whilst the timber of the Baltic and of Canada are each best adapted for their own special purposes, it is universally allowed that the Canadian wood is more soft, less durable, and more subject to dry-rot than that of the north of Europe.

The corn trade of Canada.

Besides timber, Canada has now, in corn, another great source of export, varying of course with the demand which may prevail for it in densely populated countries, but being always of importance because always affording a large supply at a cheap price. In this article, as well as in timber, the abundant produce of the colony enables Canada to check European rates.

Other imports from Canada.

Timber and corn form the bulk of our imports from Canada. She also sends us, as will be seen from the following list, some considerable quantities of pearl and pot ashes, obtained from the trees burned in her forests, and a supply of butter, an article of which her export has been rapidly increasing. The other items derived from this colony are of small amount:—

TRADE WITH CANADA, 1860.

Items of trade with this colony.

IMPORTS FROM.

	VALUED AT
Wood and Timber . . .	£2,925,731
Corn, Meal, and Flour .	1,154,219
Ashes, Pearl and Pot . .	164,882
Butter	68,764
Beaver, Fox, Marten, and Otter Skins	21,585
Manufactures of Caoutchouc	18,965
Bacon	17,290
Oil Seed Cake	4,507
Copper Ore	1,751

EXPORTS TO.

	VALUED AT
Cotton Goods	£461,909
Woollen ,, ...	379,078
Iron	321,548
Apparel and Hosiery . .	309,242
Hardwares and Cutlery . .	108,023
Earthenware and Porcelain	56,046
Linen Goods	48,751
Coals	47,728
Silk Manufactures . . .	42,399
Tin Plates	30,447
Rice	22,738

IMPORTS FROM. [*continued.*] EXPORTS TO.

IMPORTS FROM.	VALUED AT	EXPORTS TO.	VALUED AT
Salted Beef	£960	Wool	£22,420
Unenumerated Articles	43,898	Painters' Colours	21,293
		Stationery	20,359
		Tea	17,606
		Wine	13,247
		Linseed Oil	12,635
		Glass Manufactures	12,379
		Soap	12,089
		Printed Books	10,784
		Salt	10,650
		Drugs	10,565
		Sugar, Refined	10,197
		Lead and Shot	9,975
		Indigo	9,812
		Machinery	9,304
		Leather	8,734
		Plate	8,480
		Pickles and Sauces	7,160
		Spirits, Rum, Brandy, &c.	7,115
		Copper, Wrought	6,868
		Currants and Raisins	4,606
		Olive Oil	4,561
		Cordage and Cables	4,300
		Beer and Ale	3,235
		Nutmegs, Cloves, & Pepper	1,182

Total value of Imports, 1860	£4,422,556
Ditto Exports, 1860	2,266,918
Total Value of the Trade, 1860	£6,689,474

Our exports to Canada,

Canada is in a position to secure from the United States large supplies of the articles which she requires for her internal consumption; and there is reason to suppose that, through the United States, she derives very many articles of British manufacture. Our lists of exports to Canada, therefore, is less conclusive as to the consumption of the province than as to the class of articles in which, for the most part, we can successfully compete with the Americans in America. It will be seen that cotton and woollen manufactures, together with apparel and hosiery, stand at the head of the list, and that iron goods, and hardware and cutlery, succeed. There is a wide interval, however, between the value of any of these articles and those which follow; and although the amounts of some of our general articles of export to Canada are not inconsiderable, yet others are of small value, and the total, which has not increased for many years past, can scarcely be regarded as satisfactory, especially considering the great development of the territory by railroads, and the steam navigation of its lakes and rivers. The internal tariff of the colony is believed to be the great cause of this, and it is undoubtedly to be lamented that Canada, which has so greatly to rely upon what she can produce, has not yet appreciated the great secret of commerce, that in order to sell to advantage she must purchase cheaply.

limited by her customs' duties.

Probably, however, considering the immense territory to be covered, the great deficiency of Canada at the present time is in population. The country has vast resources: her industry is insufficient to develop the cultivation of her lands, and she has scarcely any that is applicable to manufacturing or other industrial pursuits. The commercial future of this and the other British colonies of North America will depend upon contingencies which we cannot at present pretend to foresee. If all that is predicted of British Columbia should come to pass, Canada most probably has, in the next few years, to go through a period of transition. A considerable proportion of her population will, in all probability, emigrate to the shores of the Pacific; and her land, which has latterly increased in value, will, consequently for some few years to come, deteriorate. The ultimate effect, however, of the gold discoveries in British Columbia must be to create a direct intercourse between the provinces. Great as is the distance, a line of railway has been already talked of; and in the end this would, no doubt, prove the cheapest communication that could be made. If

Deficiency of the population of Canada.

Her commercial future.

Probable effect of the gold discoveries in British Columbia.

such a communication could be accomplished (and the work is only a question of time), Canada would, indeed, become an important country. Equidistant from Europe and the shores of the Pacific, she would be a main source of the food-supply of both; besides having, throughout her breadth, the entire transit trade, it may be said, of the whole world. Those who consult the map will see that, longitudinally, the route across Canada and British Columbia is, absolutely, the most direct and shortest route from England to Australia;* and England and Australia are the points of the Northern and Southern hemispheres with which the shortest and most direct communication is the most desirable.

Obstructions to internal communication in Canada.

One great impediment to the extension of commerce with Canada, is the closure of the St. Lawrence and its other navigable rivers by ice during several months of the year. Up to a very recent period, all communication through the country was absolutely suspended from November until May. The construction of the Grand Trunk Railway has removed this difficulty, and there is now free communication during the winter from Quebec through the whole of Upper Canada. Unfortunately, however, the railway does not extend in Canada below Quebec, and consequently the traffic of the country is diverted from British provinces and

Importance of railway communication.

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* The distance from London to Vancouver's Island may be said to be precisely the same as from Cape Town to Victoria (Port Philip). They each cover about 124 degrees of longitude, at a distance from the equator somewhat in favour of the route through Canada. The difference, therefore, lies between the route from England to the Cape of Good Hope, with Madeira and St. Helena as coaling places; or the route from Vancouver to Victoria, with Owhyhee and one of the Friendly or of the Feejee Islands for coal depôts. The navigation of the Pacific is so preferable to that of the Atlantic for steam-vessels, that (if a coal supply is equally available, which it is said to be) there can be no doubt as to the Pacific route being the best; especially considering the saving of time which will be effected by the employment of railway communication across the broadest portion of America. In a national point of view, also, this must clearly be the best route for a British people.

harbours to those of the United States, with which the railway does communicate. One of the greatest advantages which British commerce could obtain in Canada, would probably, be the extension of the Grand Trunk Railway through the lower part of that province and New Brunswick to a British port accessible at all periods of the year.

New Brunswick.

Unfortunately, between Canada and New Brunswick there exist local jealousies, which have hitherto contributed to prevent this desirable object from being carried out. It might be supposed to be of the utmost importance to the latter colony to form a line of communication from its fine harbour of St. John's to the river St. Lawrence, but, unhappily, whilst it has made railroads in other directions, New Brunswick has done nothing to form a communication with the great river artery of North America. The consequence is, that the port of St. John's is comparatively useless. Our total imports from New Brunswick in 1860 amounted to 1,536,447*l*., of which 1,486,365*l*. was in the form of wood and timber, chiefly procured from Miramichi. Our exports to the colony amounted to 425,934*l*., showing a decrease on the trade of several preceding years.

Imports from New Brunswick, 1860.

Timber	valued at	£1,486,365
Fish, including Cod and Salmon .	,,	6,382
Pig Iron	,,	2,166
Fox and Marten Skins	,,	978
Train Oil and Blubber	,,	376

Miramichi timber.

Our imports of New Brunswick timber are chiefly from the ports in the Bay of Miramichi, which is situated on the north-eastern shore of the colony, in the Gulf of St. Lawrence. Upon the rivers which flow into this bay are several flourishing towns, the populations of which are all engaged in supplying timber to the vessels which come for it from Europe. New Brunswick, it should be observed, abounds with admirable bays and harbours. The following were our exports to this colony :—

EXPORTS TO NEW BRUNSWICK, 1860.

	VALUED AT
Iron	£69,149
Apparel	66,268
Cotton Goods	64,008
Woollen „	40,678
Cordage and Cables	19,063
Hardwares, &c.	17,478
Linen Goods	14,525
Tea	12,146
Earthenware	11,896
Coals	11,970
Copper	8,562
Painters' Colours	7,264
Salt	£5,411
Linseed Oil	4,682
Tin Plates	4,234
Cotton Yarn	4,131
Leather	3,564
Silks	2,870
Wine	2,570
Brandy	2,397
Stationery	2,237
Machinery	2,109
Indigo	2,028
Geneva	1,198

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND.

PRINCE EDWARD'S ISLAND, a comparatively small colony in the Gulf of St. Lawrence, sent us, in 1860, 54,000*l.* worth of produce, of which 34,384*l.* was timber and 18,167*l.* worth oats. It took the following articles :—

Apparel	valued at	£21,765
Cottons	„	10,454
Iron	„	9,052
Tea	„	7,762
Woollens	„	6,081
Hardwares	„	3,830
Cordage	„	3,114
Linens	„	1,831
Earthenware	„	1,554
Leather	„	908
Painters' Colours	„	678

This island does not appear to be flourishing. It is said, however, that its land is being rapidly cleared and employed for agricultural purposes.*

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* The history of Prince Edward's Island is peculiar. It was first settled by the French. In 1745 it was taken from them by the English, restored on the conclusion of hostilities, but again seized in the Seven Years' War, 1756—63. At this time the French settlers numbered about 4,000. They were condemned to leave the island ; some emigrated to Quebec, whilst others returned to France. When

NOVA SCOTIA.

Its fishery.

NOVA SCOTIA, with its splendid port of Halifax, and Cape Breton, with its deep bays and inlets, are supposed to be mainly important to us on account of their fisheries. There is reason to believe, however, that the fishery trade of Nova Scotia is not so successful as it might be, and that the Americans and Newfoundlanders beat the people of Nova Scotia out of the market. This colony sends no fish to the mother country. Her chief market for dried and pickled fish is in the West Indies, to which she also sends timber, flour, oats, butter, and other commodities, receiving colonial produce in return.

Imports from,

Our imports from Nova Scotia, in 1860, amounted in value to 144,130*l.* They consisted of—

Timber (chiefly Sawn or Split)	valued at	£99,365
Molasses (brought from the West Indies) .	,,	18,617
Seal Skins	,,	10,939
Minx, Fox, and other Skins	,,	3,059
Train Oil	,,	1,954

and exports to.

The exports amounted to 575,000*l.*, and consisted of—

EXPORTS TO NOVA SCOTIA AND CAPE BRETON.

	VALUED AT		VALUED AT
Apparel	£135,100	Painters' Colours	£7,339
Cotton Goods	75,540	Linseed Oil	6,362
Woollen ,, ...	75,333	Wine	5,817
Iron ,, ...	40,155	Glass Manufactures . . .	4,752
Tea	24,575	Hats	4,069
Cordage and Cables	21,267	Brandy	3,827
Hardwares	20,324	Copper	3,223
Leather	13,781	Drugs	3,207
Silk Manufactures	12,197	Hollands	2,655
Linens	10,303	Stationery	2,556
Salt	10,184	Indigo	2,290
Fishing Tackle	9,645	Machinery	2,029
Earthenware	8,942	Soap	1,739
Cotton Yarn	8,056	Rice	1,613

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we got the island it would appear that we did not know what to do with it. At length it was determined to divide it into townships, of about 20,000 acres each, and to make these townships *prizes in a grand lottery*, to which only

Apparel.

The noticeable articles in this list are, the large quantity of wearing apparel (which everywhere in America commands a very advanced price); the value of the tea, which our North American colonists appear to consume in considerable quantities; and the salt and fishing tackle, destined for use in catching and pickling the shad, as the small but delicate herring of the North American coast is usually denominated. But it is to be observed, with reference to Nova Scotia, as well as with regard to all the colonies of Great Britain in North America, that their imports from the mother country, despite their increase of population and wealth, are decreasing or stationary, which is, it is believed, to be mainly attributed to high rates of import duties, imposed, it is said, for purposes of revenue by the different colonial Legislatures. Certainly, rates of duty which prevent the British settler from obtaining the commodities to which he has been accustomed in his own country at prices equal to those he paid for them at home, must be condemned as most unwise, and as eminently calculated to retard what it is the first object of the British North American colonists to promote—the population of their territories. No people will emigrate to, or remain in, a country in which the necessities and comforts of life, to which they have been accustomed at home, are made fictitiously dear by customs' duties.

Tea.

Fishing tackle.

High rates of import duties in our North American colonies.

The future of

It may be hoped, however, that there is a future

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certain persons, principally officers in the Army and Navy, were permitted to be subscribers. This lottery was drawn in 1767, and the land passed into the hands of a few proprietors, of whom only a small proportion went into residence. This position of the colony greatly retarded its progress, and efforts have been made during the present century to effect subdivisions of the lands, which has been done with some success. The population of the island, according to the last return, was 80,872. His late Royal Highness the Duke of Kent (father of Queen Victoria), who was for some time resident in Nova Scotia, took a great interest in this colony, and from him the island took its present name.

of some importance for Nova Scotia. Recently, reports have been sent home of gold found in different parts of this colony; but from all that can be collected on that subject, the metal, though it undoubtedly exists, is so much diffused, as to present a prospect of comparatively small returns. The great wealth of Nova Scotia will, probably, be found to consist in the rich coal-fields of the peninsula and of Cape Breton, which have been long known to be capable of affording a most valuable supply of the mineral, and also in the position and capacity of the harbour of Halifax, which is at once the best harbour on the eastern coast of America, and the nearest to Great Britain. That which would be most valuable to Nova Scotia at this time, would be a direct railway communication from Halifax to Quebec—a line which must eventually be made, and the sooner the better for the interests of Nova Scotia, Canada, and the mother country.

Nova Scotia.

Gold, and

Coal.

The harbour of Halifax.

Our imports from NEWFOUNDLAND necessarily vary in amount, according to the success which attends its fishery. 1860 was a comparatively unproductive year. Our imports from this colony average nearly 600,000*l.* a year, but in 1860 they amounted to only 484,000*l.* The items were:

NEWFOUNDLAND.

IMPORTS FROM NEWFOUNDLAND.

Imports.

Train Oil and Blubber	valued at	£232,910
Cod Fish	,,	115,204
Seal Skins	,,	63,075
Herrings, Salmon, Caplin, Shad, &c.	,,	42,059
Molasses (from West Indies)	,,	5,780
Fox, Marten, Otter, and Beaver Skins	,,	3,714

Our exports were nearly equal in amount to those sent to Nova Scotia, though the population of that province is 277,000, whilst the population of Newfoundland is only 122,000. The total amounted to 504,185*l.* thus distributed :—

Exports.

EXPORTS TO NEWFOUNDLAND, 1860.

	VALUED AT		VALUED AT
Apparel	£105,362	Earthenware	£5,680
Woollen Goods	67,383	Coals	5,111
Leather ,,	57,047	Stationery	3,284
Iron ,,	34,033	Lead and Shot	3,039
Cotton ,,	33,207	Sugar, Refined	2,912
Fishing Tackle	29,295	Brandy	2,581
Tea	22,564	Bread and Biscuit	2,234
Linens	18,147	Coffee	2,065
Cordage and Cables	16,467	Candles	1,334
Hardwares	15,205	Silk Manufactures	1,005
Beer and Ale	8,186	Salted Pork	871
Salt	7,609	Rum and Gin	814
Soap	6,188	Wine	461

Trade with Labrador.

Fishing stations on the coast of Labrador.

A proportion of these goods went to the coast of Labrador, from which we derived a considerable proportion of the train oil and blubber at the head of the list of articles imported. During the fishing season, from 280 to 300 small vessels proceed from Newfoundland to the different fishing stations on the coast of Labrador, where nearly 20,000 British subjects are employed for the season. About one-third of the schooners make two voyages, laden with dry fish, back to Newfoundland during the summer; and some merchant ships proceed from Labrador with their cargoes direct to Europe. On the second voyages of the schooners, they generally carry wet fish from Labrador to Newfoundland, where it is dried, and from thence exported chiefly to Spain, Portugal, Italy, and other Roman Catholic countries, where it enters more largely into the consumption of the population than in our own. Eight-tenths of the dried fish exported from Newfoundland is said to go to those countries, the remainder being sent to Great Britain and the West Indies.

The fishery on "the Banks" of Newfoundland.

It is commonly supposed that we have a great interest in what are called the fisheries on the banks of Newfoundland, on which great quantities of cod used to be taken. Our interest in the bank fisheries is, however, by no means so large as is imagined. The Newfoundland fishermen have discovered that the largest takes of marketable fish and oil are to be obtained, not upon their banks, but upon their shores; where they have also the advantage of exclusive fishing, as aliens are prohibited from fishing within three miles of the coasts, or in the bays or rivers of Newfoundland (except as provided by treaty with the Americans and with the French).

Shipping engaged in our trade with the North American Colonies.

The total number of ships entered inwards from our North American colonies, in 1860, was 2,178, of 1,088,779 tons. Our shipping interests have long apprehended great interference with our Canadian trade on the part of the Americans. It does not, however, appear that there was much to be afraid of. The comparative number of British and foreign vessels was—

British	1,775 vessels of . . .	887,874 tons.
Foreign	403 ,, . . .	200,905 ,,
TOTAL . . .	2,178 ,, . . .	1,088,779 ,,

General distribution of the trade.

As may be anticipated from the character of the traffic, this trade is very much distributed amongst the different ports of Great Britain; some even of the smaller ports employing shipping to share in the timber trade. It is a common custom to send vessels out in ballast to the St. Lawrence, and elsewhere, for timber; and as the voyage out and home is a short one, and the timber is purchased at a very low price, this sort of commerce pays. In 1860, 597 vessels, of 327,697 tons, left Great Britain for the North American colonies in ballast.

We now come to speak of a colony which, although one of the largest in extent, has hitherto been one of the poorest in production of any belonging to the British empire; but which promises henceforward to contribute more to the wealth of the State than any of which we have hitherto made mention.

British Columbia.

British Columbia is a territory heretofore included in what were termed the "Settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company."

Position of the territory.

The territory over which that company, from 1670 to 1858, had exclusive trading rights extends over two or three million square miles. It is bounded on the north by the Arctic Ocean, whilst its southern limit, as settled in 1842 by the Ashburton Treaty, is the 49th parallel of north latitude from Lake Superior to the Gulf of Georgia. This vast region possesses superb lakes and rivers; but its land has always been described as rugged and barren, and its climate as severe.

Settlement of Vancouver's Island.

An island in the Pacific, 300 miles long by 75 broad, at the western extremity of this territory, called Vancouver's Island, was, however, colonized some years since by the Hudson Bay Company, who erected on it a fort, called Fort Victoria, and represented the island to be of great importance in consequence of its containing coal.

First discovery of gold,

Soon after the discovery of gold in California, it was reported that gold also existed in Vancouver's Island, but the superior attraction of California, at that time, prevented much notice being taken of the circumstance.

in Queen Charlotte's Sound, A.D. 1852.

In 1852, gold was discovered on some small islands in Queen Charlotte's Sound, between Vancouver's Island and the mainland, but only in small quantities.

Subsequent discoveries on the Columbia River, A.D. 1853.

As matter of actual discovery, Captain McClelland, in 1853, while surveying the military road from Fort Walla Walla, on the Columbia River, to Fort Steillacoom, on Puget Sound, through the Nachess Pass, found gold in considerable quantities, his men making two dollars a day, sometimes, with a pan. These discoveries, however, do not appear to have been officially reported to the Home Government; but in 1856, Mr. Douglas, Governor of Vancouver's Island, addressed a despatch to the Colonial Secretary, in which he stated that a discovery of much importance had been made known to him by Mr. Angus M'Donald, clerk in charge of Fort Colvile, who reported that gold had been found in considerable quantities within the British territory on the Upper Columbia, and that he was moreover of opinion that valuable deposits of gold would be found in many other parts of that country.

Official Report as to discoveries in Upper Columbia, A.D. 1856.

The Colony of "British Columbia" defined, A.D. 1858.

The Home Government thought it necessary, on this information, to provide for the government of the colony, which was done by an Act of Parliament of 1858, withdrawing the privileges of the Hudson's Bay Company, and defining the limits of the territory under the name of British Columbia. At this time the search for gold would appear to have been carried on exclusively by the native Indians of the district; but in 1858 a number of persons emigrated to the district from California, and commenced mining. The first shipments of gold were made from Victoria to San Francisco, and amounted

Mining commenced.

Shipments of gold to San Francisco.

In 1858	to	£67,553
,, 1859	,, ...	242,262
,, 1860	,, ...	260,666

An auriferous ridge discovered, A.D. 1861.

This, however, was only a foretaste of the wealth to be discovered. In 1861 rumours reached Vancouver's Island, that the source of the gold found upon the banks of the Fraser and other rivers, had been discovered in a range of rocky mountains, which formed an auriferous ridge in which these rivers had their source! In the course of 1861 bodies

The "CARIBOO" gold-field.

of gold-seekers penetrated to this district, which received the name of CARIBOO, from a lake so-called in the vicinity; and the following is a despatch, from Governor Douglas to the Duke of Newcastle, giving the most recent accounts of their expedition.

Governor Douglas's official report to H.M. Secretary of State for the Colonies, A.D. 1861.

"Victoria, Vancouver Island, *September* 16, 1861.
(Received *November* 2, 1861.)

"MY LORD DUKE,

"I HAVE much satisfaction in reporting to your Grace that the Colony of British Columbia continues in a tranquil and progressive state.

"The Gold Commissioners, in their last monthly reports, represent the continued exodus of the mining population from their respective districts towards the 'Cariboo' country; in speaking of which I have adopted the popular and more convenient orthography of the word, though properly it should be written 'Cariboeuf,' or rein-deer, the country having been so named from its being a favourite haunt of that species of the deer kind.

"The most extraordinary accounts of the wealth of that gold-field are received by every succeeding steamer from British Columbia; and those accounts are confirmed by letters from the merchants and traders of the district, and by fortunate adventurers who have realized, by a few weeks' labour, their thousands of dollars. It would in fact appear that Cariboo is at least equal, in point of auriferous wealth, to the best parts of California; and I believe the gold deposits of British Columbia will be found to be distributed over far more extensive space.

"Some idea may be formed of the large sums realized, from the fact that 195 ounces of gold were taken in one day out of a single mining claim; while ordinary claims yield as much as forty or fifty dollars a-day to the man: but perhaps the most telling circumstance is the high price of labour, which has attained to the extraordinary sum of ten dollars a-day; and any number of men may find employment at that rate of pay.

"The Cariboo gold district was discovered by a fine athletic young man of the name of McDonnell, a native of the island of Cape Breton, of mixed French and Scotch descent, combining in his personal appearance and character the courage, activity, The Cariboo gold-field. — Despatches relating to it.

and remarkable powers of endurance of both races. His health has suffered from three years' constant exposure and privation, which induced him to repair, with his well-earned wealth, to this colony for medical assistance.

"His verbal report to me is interesting, and conveys the idea of an almost exhaustless gold-field, extending through the quartz and slate formations, in a northerly direction from Cariboo Lake.

"The following well-attested instances of successful mining at Cariboo may prove interesting, and will probably convey to Her Majesty's Government a more precise idea of the value and real character of this gold-field than any mere generalizations, and with that object in view, I will lay the details, as received from the persons themselves, before your Grace.

"John McArthur and Thomas Phillips arrived here from Cariboo on the 17th of August last, with nine thousand ($9000) dollars' worth of gold dust in their possession, being the fruits of three months' residence at the mines. They arrived there on the 1st day of May, and left again on the 1st day of August, having previously sold their mining claim at a high price to other persons. Their last earnings for one day amounted to five hundred and twenty-five dollars ($525); and no single day's work yielded less than twenty-five dollars ($25). Both those persons have been mining in California, and are acquainted with its resources, yet they give it as their opinion that Cariboo, as a 'generally paying' country, surpasses the best days of California.

"Mr. Patterson and brother arrived at New Westminster* by the steamer of the 14th instant, with ten thousand dollars' worth of gold dust, the produce of five weeks' work at Cariboo. I personally inspected their treasure, of which they are justly proud, being the well-earned reward of their skill and enterprise. Mr. Patterson's mining claim was on the Lowhee, a tributary of Swift River, and about sixteen miles distant from Antler Creek. The ground was composed of gravel and many quartz boulders, and the depth to the bed-rock was from four to six feet, beyond which he did not attempt to penetrate, though the richest deposit of gold was immediately over the

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* New Westminster is designed to be the principal town of the new colony of British Columbia. It is situate on the north bank of the Fraser river, and is rapidly rising into consequence. It is stated that the choice of the position for this town is not happy.

The Cariboo gold-fields. — Despatches

bed-rock. The largest day's return from the claim was seventy-three ounces of gold, worth about twelve hundred dollars ($1,200); on another occasion he received seventy ounces at the close of a day's work. The gold is in rough jagged pieces, the largest found by Mr. Patterson was over six ounces; but on the next claim to his, a piece of ten ounces was picked up by the lucky proprietor. Mr. Patterson sold his mining claim before his departure from Cariboo, and is now returning to his native country, the United States, with the wealth he has so rapidly acquired in British Columbia, this being one of the evils to which the colony is exposed through the want of a fixed population.

"I will not multiply these details, having said enough to show your Grace the opinion entertained by the public of the newly-discovered gold fields, and of the probable influx of population from California and other countries, which may be attracted by those discoveries. I need not assure your Grace that every precaution will, in that event, be taken to maintain the peace, order, and good government of the country, and to increase its permanent population: but it is impossible to repress a feeling of profound regret that so few of Her Majesty's British subjects have yet participated in the rich harvests reaped in British Columbia, though there is certainly no country in the world that offers greater inducements to the labouring classes, or for the employment of capital. The settler enjoys the peculiar advantage in British Columbia of an unfettered choice of the public domain; and may, without expense or official delay, select any part of the colony he pleases, as his future home; the ultimate price of land being in no case over four shillings and twopence an acre, payable by instalments, spread over several years. In fact, the system of no country can offer greater inducements to the settler and miner than the land regulations and mining laws of British Columbia.

"The miners at Cariboo have, I am glad to inform your Grace, suffered no privation whatever from the want of food. Besides the large importations of bread-stuffs and salt meat packed in from Lillooet and Lytton,* large droves of cattle have been sent to Antler Creek, where the native grasses are nutritious and abundant; and fresh beef is now selling by retail at 1*s.* 8*d.* a pound. A mining town of some note has sprung into existence at Antler's Creek, and supplies of all kinds can be readily purchased.

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* So called after the Right Hon. Sir E. Bulwer Lytton, M.P. Colonial Secretary in 1858, when the Act was passed for settling this colony.

The Cariboo gold-fields. — Despatches

"The traveller who is prepared to encounter famine in its gauntest forms on his arrival at Cariboo, is not a little astonished to find himself in the midst of luxury, sitting down every morning to fresh milk and eggs for breakfast, and to as good a dinner as can be seen in Victoria.

"The great commercial thoroughfares, leading into the interior of the country, from Hope, Yale, and Douglas, are in rapid progress, and now exercise a most beneficial effect on the internal commerce of the colony. I have many other productive public works, indispensable for the development of the colony, in view, but I cannot undertake their execution until I am made acquainted with your Grace's decision about the proposed loan of money for British Columbia.

"I have, &c.
"(Signed) JAMES DOUGLAS."

Again, under date of October 24, 1861, the Governor wrote:—

"Accounts from Cariboo are more than ever satisfactory; and the numbers of returning miners with their rapidly acquired stores of gold, and the extraordinary fact, unusual, I believe, in gold countries, that they have been all eminently successful, offer the strongest confirmation of the almost fabulous wealth of that gold-field. I have not, indeed, up to the present time, met with a single unfortunate miner from that quarter. Of those whom I had occasion to interrogate during my recent visit to British Columbia, I ascertained that none who held mining claims had less than $2,000, and that others had cleared as much as $10,000 during their summer's sojourn at the mines. It may therefore be fairly assumed that their individual earnings range at some point between those figures. I should, however, apprize your Grace that the large strikes of the season, such as Jourdan and Abbott claim on Lowhee Creek, and Ned Campbell's claim on Lightning Creek, the latter said to have produced 900 ounces of gold in one day, are not included in this category, as I have had no opportunity of seeing the owners of these claims, who are still in the upper country; but I will inquire into and report upon these special cases hereafter."

Probable consequences of these discoveries.

Although not absolutely germane to the objects of this book, I have thought it desirable to give in full these interesting despatches, as conveying the best information we have hitherto received respecting a colony likely to exercise so important an influence on the future of all our North American possessions. Whatever may be the ultimate result of this extraordinary discovery, the immediate consequence will, no doubt, be to induce a great resort of population to this territory, and, probably, to lead to the immediate development of a quarter of the globe, which, in the ordinary progress of events, we could scarcely hope to have seen colonized during the next century. How grand a future for the northern portion of America this discovery opens up, may be judged of from a consideration of the following circumstances:

"The coal mines of Nova Scotia are the best, and, indeed, the only places on the Atlantic coast of America for procuring coal. The supplies there are inexhaustible. Vancouver Island is the only spot where coal is to be found on the Pacific. Thus facilities for steam-boat and railway travel are provided at either end of a great trans-continental route. The Harbour of Halifax on the one side and Victoria on the other are the best in all America—both always free from ice, well protected, and capacious. The valley of the St. Lawrence extends a thousand miles and more between these extreme points. The valley of the Saskatchewan runs a thousand miles further—both of these being in British territory, in the direction of travel between the oceans, and so level as to be almost natural beds for railroads. Ere many years, railway trains must run on British ground from one side of this new world to the other, carrying not only the gold of California and Columbia towards Great Britain, but also the teas and silks of China and Japan and the rich productions of our Indian empire, and returning with finer manufactures of English anvils and looms for the supply of the populations of two Southern continents."

The future of British Columbia.

It is almost too early to speculate as to the commerce of this portion of the globe. Hitherto it has drawn its main supplies from San Francisco, and has sent there most of the gold it has produced. But of course this will all be altered as soon as population settles down. At the time this is written, there are several thousand tons of shipping laid down in London and Liverpool for the British Columbia trade. Great efforts are being made by the Royal Mail Steam Company to provide for passengers by the route across the Isthmus of Panama; and companies are forming for conveying passengers and parcels from Lake Superior to British Columbia, across the Rocky Mountains. Should a railway track be formed, the result must be, not only to open up to civilization a portion of the world which has hitherto been almost unexplored, but to give to cultivators of the soil in British North America a means of transit to all the markets of the Pacific, and an open passage to China and to our possessions in the East Indies and Australia. In every respect—politically, socially, and commercially—the establishment of such a communication would give a progressive aspect to the affairs of the world, which would eclipse anything which has been witnessed even amid the extraordinary development of the present century.

Commerce with the Settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company.

It may be interesting, with a view to the future, to record the condition of the commerce of Great Britain with the settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company in the year 1860. It should be observed that, as regards imports, that commerce had been for some years declining, owing apparently to the increasing difficulty in obtaining skins. The exports were stationary. Their amount, in 1860, was—

Imports from the Hudson's Bay Company's Settlements	£178,522
Exports to ditto	131,976
Total Trade	£310,498

thus distributed:—

List of articles imported and exported.

IMPORTS FROM.	VALUED AT
Skins and Furs:—	
Marten	£51,589
Fox	47,870
Beaver	26,951
Otter	11,662
Fishes (Fitch or Pole Cat)	7,647
Lynx	5,360
Musquash (or Musk-rat)	4,727
Bear	4,722
Minx	4,279
Wolf	1,647
Train Oil and Blubber	2,239
Castor	1,155
Feathers for Beds	677
Isinglass	626
Unenumerated Articles	7,371

EXPORTS TO.	VALUED AT
Woollen Goods	£28,114
Apparel, &c.	23,668
Leather Goods	5,368
Beer and Ale	4,860
Tobacco, Manufactured	4,827
Cotton Goods	4,260
Hardwares	2,998
Tea	2,908
Rum	2,891
Wine	2,886
Brandy	2,842
Gunpowder	2,839
Guns	2,697
Iron	2,041
Sugar, Refined	1,862
Soap	758
Linens	399
Coffee	359
Unenumerated	35,399

The Fur trade influenced by fashion and by weather.

It will be seen, from this account, that a very large proportion of the British trade in furs has been done through the Hudson's Bay Company. The value of furs, it should be observed, depends on a variety of considerations. The trade is influenced not alone by the caprices of fashion, but by the state of the weather, which, in one hemisphere, has its influence on the quantity and quality obtainable, whilst in another it influences the quantity consumed. Furs may be divided into three classes:—1. Lambskins, which are mostly consumed by us in the glove manufacture, but which in Russia, Poland, East Prussia, Hungary, Bohemia, Saxony, and elsewhere, form an essential

Furs classified.

Lambskins.

part of the dress of a large proportion of the lower classes. 2. Hatting furs, such as those of the beaver, musquash, nutria,* hare, and rabbit, which, owing to the introduction of silk and straw hats, are much less in demand now than they were formerly; and, 3, the furs of fashion, which comprise, at different times, the skins of almost every description of animal—even "bearskin hats" and "monkey muffs" having had their day, as well as the more valuable skins of the ermine, the sable, the tiger, the leopard, and of the black and silver fox. It is a remarkable and peculiar feature of the fur trade, that almost every country which produces and exports furs imports and consumes the furs of some other place. There are some countries, however, which neither export nor consume, as, for instance, Australia, where there is no *native* † fur-producing except the kangaroo, the skin of which is only used by leather-dressers and tanners, and never for its fur. China is one of the best markets in the world for fur. Its trade has been hitherto in the hands of the Russo-American Fur Company of Moscow, who draw their supplies from Kamschatka and Russian-America, and exchange them at Kachta for tea and other Chinese products. Now that our trade is open with the northern ports of China, where they experience extremely severe winters, this fact may be borne in mind with advantage by our merchants.

Hatting furs.

Furs of fashion.

Peculiar features of the fur trade.

Prior to 1859, the trade of British Columbia was not distinguished in the official records from that of the other settlements of the Hudson's Bay Company.

Commencement of our trade with British Columbia.

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* Nutria furs, are those of the coypou, a species of water-rat, of the size and colour of the otter, found in Buenos Ayres, Chili, and other parts of South America. This fur has been largely used in the hat manufacture, but the importations vary very much in quantity.

† Australia exports sheep skins; but the sheep was imported into Australia, and is not native to the country.

In that year, however, the amounts were defined; and it appears that we sent to British Columbia—

In 1859, General Merchandize, valued at		£62,011
In 1860,	ditto	46,728

This is the commencement of our commerce with the possession. At present we have received no imports from the colony, except some wood, valued at about 6,000*l.*, from Vancouver's Island, which is clothed with an abundance of fine oaks and cedars.

Trade with other Colonies.

Our trade with our colonies in the Mediterranean has already been referred to.* Gibraltar and Malta are entrepôts for an illicit commerce with Spain, and for trade with Morocco and other countries on the coast of Africa. The Ionian Islands have also been referred to.† From these islands some of our manufactures reach the coast of Albania, supplying Servia, Bosnia, Montenegro, &c. The only other colonies which remain to be noticed are those dismal settlements on the west coast of Africa, which have been the graves of so many of our fellow-countrymen. Our trade with the settlements on this coast was represented, in 1860, by the following figures:—

SIERRA LEONE, &c

COLONIES ON THE WEST COAST OF AFRICA.

COLONY.	IMPORTS FROM	EXPORTS TO
Sierra Leone	£63,261	£238,793
Settlements on the Gold Coast	51,577	106,069
Ditto, in Gambia	26,300	41,944
TOTALS	£141,138	£386,856

The amount (something like half a million in the whole) is comparatively trifling; and contrasting the

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* Vide ante, page 276.

† Ante, page 287.

Considerations as to our trade with these dependencies.

trade done with these settlements with that done on the coast of Africa generally,* it is clear that these settlements are not worth maintaining for commercial purposes. It is foreign to the present object to consider whether they are worth maintaining for any other purpose. Great Britain has expended an immense amount of blood and treasure in her efforts to put down the slave trade; but it may admit of question, how far the colonial establishments on the coast of Africa have assisted her in doing so. That which would best effect the object would be a trade fully opened out with the blacks themselves, which would give them an interest in the export of other commodities than slaves taken in their wars.† The palm-oil trade, properly conducted, presents itself as the most efficient means of effecting this desirable object; but it will be seen, by the following table, that the trade in palm oil and oil nuts, from the British possessions in South Africa, is a mere trifle compared with the trade carried on with other parts of the coast, which amounts to nearly four millions per annum (3,921,999*l.*), whilst that of our West African settlements scarcely exceeds a tenth part of that amount.

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* Vide ante, page 336.

† Mr. Montgomery Martin, speaking of our West African settlements, observes:— "The ample resources provided by Parliament in furtherance of philanthropic objects have been applied to measures of a transitory nature, connected "with the private pursuits of those who recommended them, in place of being "spent in founding a permanent system of moral and commercial improvement "for the natives. The money has been frittered away in contracts and jobbing "in the settlements, whilst the country, with its countless inhabitants, has been "left with scarcely an effort for its improvement, and bears scarcely a trace of "advantage arising from all the money that has been devoted to the colony. No "encouragements has been offered to the native chiefs in the way of premiums "for the productions of the soil, nor has any regular system been adopted for "supplying them with seeds, tools, or agricultural instruction. Had this been "done, and persons brought from the West Indies, capable of instructing the "natives in planting, England might have had at this day something to show and "boast of for the money she has spent in Africa."

Imports from and

VALUE OF IMPORTS FROM	SIERRA LEONE.	GOLD COAST.	GAMBIA.
	£	£	£
Palm Oil	21,012	37,342	
Teak	10,182		
Ground Nuts* for expressing Oil	8,635	3,984	12,539
Camwood	6,775		
Ginger	3,801		
Gum Copal	3,448	760	
Elephants' Teeth	3,500	1,391	421
Bees' Wax	434	—	12,950
Maize	—	3,548	
Unenumerated Articles	5,405	4,552	390

exports to Sierra Leone, &c.

Our exports to these settlements exceed, in nominal value, our imports from them; and the character of several of the leading items affords reason to apprehend that the trade carried on by their agency is little calculated to promote the improvement of the people whose civilization these settlements are ostensibly designed to promote. The remarks which have already been made, with reference to our exportations, to the west coast of Africa generally, apply with equal force to our exports to our own settlements. It is impossible to suppose that the rum, the gunpowder, the arms, the cutlery, the guns, the iron, the shot, the glass beads and cowries, are required for the purpose of legitimate traffic.

Their character.

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* Ground nuts, which yield large quantities of oil, have become rather an important article of European commerce, under somewhat peculiar circumstances. The French Government having, some years since, imposed high duties on most descriptions of oil seeds, the oil crushers of the South of France applied themselves to discover seeds which would produce oil, and which were not included in the tariff. Amongst others they discovered the "arachides," or ground nut, which grows in Africa, India, Brazil, and different parts of America, and which was found to answer the purpose required by the crushers. France, has, in consequence, become a great market for these nuts; of which the principal supply is obtained from the rivers Senegal and Gambia. The oil is good for use in various ways, either in food, in the woollen manufactures, in lubricating machinery, or in the manufacture of soap. The blacks and the Americans use the nut in the first form; the English use it chiefly for the second purpose, the Belgians for the third, and the French for the fourth. A London firm of African merchants have been most instrumental in developing the use of these nuts in this country.

The following list shows the value of these and other items of exportation :—

List of exports.

VALUE OF EXPORTS TO	SIERRA LEONE.	GOLD COAST.	GAMBIA.
	£	£	£
Cotton Goods	138,416	59,075	13,419
Apparel, &c.	16,571	1,969	2,196
Rum	7,074	1,861	441
Gunpowder	7,204	9,365	3,077
Arms	5,513		
Hardwares and Cutlery	4,730	2,229	938
Iron	4,140	1,052	1,848
Guns	3,775	2,311	3,297
Prepared Fuel and Coals . . .	3,559		
Earthenware	3,583		
Beer and Ale	2,959	835	583
Woollen Goods	3,466	1,420	125
Wine	2,562		
Sugar, refined	2,292		
Glass Beads and Bugles . . .	1,573	1,307	319
Salt	1,555		
Leather Goods	1,508		
Glass Manufactures	1,299		
Lead and Shot	—	1,934	
Staves and Empty Casks . . .	505	1,094	
Cowries	—	601	
Indian Silk Goods	—	1,525	
Rice	—	—	4,042

To summarize the foregoing information :—

The Colonies of Great Britain.

Exclusive of her empire in India, Great Britain, at the present time, has 49 colonies ; which may be thus classified—

Their number and population.

	NO. OF COLONIES.	POPULATION.
Eastern	5	2,675,536
Australian	7	1,223,985
African	7	629,013
Mediterranean, and Miscellaneous	6	400,865
North American	7	3,210,779
West Indian.	17	986,035
TOTAL	49	9,126,213

Of the nine millions of people in these colonies, five millions are of European race.

Summary view of the trade of our Colonies.

The imports and exports of these colonies are exhibited in the following table:—

COLONIES.	IMPORTS.		EXPORTS.
	FROM GREAT BRITAIN.	FROM OTHER COUNTRIES.	
	£	£	£
EASTERN — Ceylon, Mauritius, and Seychelles, Straits Settlements, Hong-Kong, and Labuan	1,524,640	4,421,392	12,498,758
AUSTRALASIAN—New So. Wales, Queensland, Victoria, South Australia, Western Australia, Tasmania, and New Zealand .	15,256,354	11,311,337	21,982,286
AFRICAN SETTLEMENTS—Sierra Leone, Gambia, Gold Coast, St. Helena, Cape Colony, British Kaffraria, and Natal	2,260,745	999,085	2,629,439
MEDITERRANEAN AND MISCELLANEOUS POSSESSIONS, &c.—Gibraltar, Malta, Ionian Isles, Heligoland, Aden, Falkland Isl.	404,839	3,344,263	2,477,040
NORTH AMERICAN COLONIES—Canada, NovaScotia, NewBrunswick, Prince Edward's Island, Newfoundland, Vancouver, British Columbia	4,724,066	7,027,719	10,907,493
WEST INDIAN POSSESSIONS—British Honduras, British Guiana, Jamaica, Bahamas, Turk's Island, Trinidad, Barbados, Grenada, Tobago, St. Vincent, St. Lucia, Antigua, Montserrat, St. Kitts, Nevis, Virgin Islands, Dominica . .	2,408,951	2,702,873	5,788,803
	26,579,595	29,806,699	56,283,819
	£56,386,294		

Our Colonies classified according to their commerce.

The commercial importance of each of our colonies may be estimated from the following return, showing the declared value of the exports of British produce and manufactures to our colonial possessions in each of the last two years:—

COLONY.	1860.	1861.
	£	£
Australia	9,707,261	10,701,752
British North America	3,727,350	3,696,646
Cape of Good Hope and Natal	2,065,523	1,986,629
British West Indies	1,845,254	1,850,001
Hong-Kong	2,445,991	1,733,967
Singapore	1,671,092	1,026,018
Gibraltar	1,159,313	1,016,092
Channel Islands	655,948	666,325
British Guiana	571,685	613,973
Malta and Gozo	704,073	564,161
Mauritius	538,303	551,797
Ceylon	671,219	485,659
British West Coast of Africa	340,366	381,163
Ionian Islands	345,055	296,603
British Honduras	142,554	201,135
St. Helena	46,405	45,466
Aden	45,297	12,369
Falkland Islands	5,306	9,847
Ascension	8,688	7,644
Labuan	2,583	1,217
Heligoland	287	386
TOTAL	£26,699,543	£25,848,880

Relative value of the Foreign and Colonial trades of Great Britain.

The relative value of the foreign and colonial trade of Great Britain may be estimated by this account. In 1860 it appears that our total colonial trade amounted to—

Exports to the Colonies	£26,699,543
Imports from the Colonies	56,283,819
TOTAL	£82,983,362

The real value of our imports and exports of merchandize amounted, in the same year, to a

Total of	£375,052,224
Deduct for the Colonies	82,983,362
Balance for Foreign Trade	£292,068,862

CHAPTER VIII.

OUR COASTING AND COAL TRADES.

Importance of our coasting trade.

To an insular kingdom, such as ours, a coasting trade cannot but be otherwise than of great importance. Permeated as the country is by navigable rivers, affording access to many of our more important towns, a means of communication by the coast, from place to place, must afford facilities for communication of the utmost value, commercially and nationally. It may be said that the coasting trade of Great Britain, at the earlier part of the present century, had arrived at a state of perfection. Not only were our coasts completely navigated from point to point, but every description of traffic was provided for. Our rivers, also, had been deepened and rendered navigable wherever impediments existed to their navigation; and, more than all, they had been brought into conjunction by a series of canals, so that the whole country may be said to have been placed in communication with the sea-board, for purposes of commerce.

Perfection to which this trade was brought.

Effect of railways,

At the moment that this system of communication had attained perfection, another sprung into existence which threatened practically to supersede it. Most of our earlier railways followed the lines of the canals; and it certainly appeared, at first sight, that they must compete with, and be antagonistic to, the canal system; and in so far as they connected the

on the canal,

metropolis with the outports, must also compete with and be antagonistic to the coasting trade. It was, indeed, argued, that inasmuch as railways were constructed at larger cost than canals, and worked at heavier expense than coasting vessels, that they never could afford to carry goods so cheap. *Primâ facie*, the argument seemed plausible; but experience and practice have proved that all the arguments originating in theory on the probable results of a competition between railways and canals and coasting vessels were erroneous. The railways have served so rapidly to develop the resources of the nation, that other systems of communication, though they may have been diverted, have not, in any degree, been superseded.

and coasting system,

to divert but not to supersede this traffic.

The canal-boats carry as much, and even more, than before railways were constructed; our coasting trade is larger than it ever was; even the number of coaches, vans, and horses, employed in Great Britain, the use of which railways were designed to supersede, is greater than it was before those railways were made, in consequence of the auxiliary means of communication and transit which railways necessarily require.* It cannot be doubted that the number of horses employed in connexion with the railway traffic is much in excess of the number employed in connexion with the coaching traffic of the country even in its palmiest days; one proof of which is, that horses are dearer at the present time than they ever were in England. And in proportion to the number of horses employed, we must estimate the number of vans and other vehicles.

By developing traffic, railways have increased employment in the transit trade.

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* It was stated, in the Second Report of the Postmaster-General (1856), that the branch mail coaches communicating with railways conveyed the side mails over no less than 31,667 miles per day—a greater mileage, probably, than all the mail coaches of England ran before the days of railway communication.

Why railways have not injured the traffic on canals.

As regards the canal traffic, it is to be borne in mind, that the transit of traffic on canals is necessarily restricted by physical circumstances. Nature opposes a practical limit to that description of transit. Every canal must have a summit level, more or less abundantly supplied with water. The extent of traffic by canal must, therefore, depend upon the supply of water which can be commanded at the summits to be traversed. Beyond this, canals are subject to the vicissitudes of the seasons. They may not only be deficient of water in dry seasons, when the traffic is at its maximum, but they may be, and often are, exposed to stoppage by frost in winter for weeks together, when the supplies of fuel they would otherwise convey into our towns are most needed for consumption. In consequence of these causes, railways have interfered less than it was at first supposed they would with canal traffic. They have chiefly afforded facilities for carrying a class of traffic which canals were ill adapted to convey. In the conveyance of almost all classes of heavy goods, and in the transport also of certain classes of light goods not requiring expedition in their delivery, canals have not only held their own against railways, but have conveyed more than they ever did. Thus, iron, bricks, and the like articles, almost invariably go by canal in preference to railway; whilst earthenware and pottery of every description find in canal transit comparative freedom from breakage.

Why the coasting trade has been able to compete with railways.

That the coasting trade should have held its own, as it has done, against railway communication, is due to several causes which operate largely in its favour. Our coasting vessels were always accustomed to trade from point to point, and at each point so traded with, appliances and conveniences for traffic had come into existence which could not be diverted, and which railway companies were unable to supply. The granaries in which corn is collected and stored, whether in provincial towns or in the metropolis, are almost invariably at the river side. Railways could not at once be brought to the doors of these granaries, in many cases they could not be brought to them at all;* but coasting vessels are able to load and unload alongside almost any granary, thereby avoiding all cost for cartage or lighterage. Thus it happens, for example, that in the eastern counties of England, which supply London to so large an extent with corn, the bulk of the trade between the different towns and the metropolis continues, despite the railway, to be carried on by coasters. All the rivers of Essex, Suffolk, and Norfolk—the Lea, the Stort, the Blackwater, the Colne, the Stour, the Orwell, the Deben, the Alde, the Blythe, the Yar, the Wear, the Bure, the Ouse, the Nene, and smaller channels of navigation—all send their corn to market by various descriptions of sailing craft. The coast towns of those counties—Harwich, Ipswich, Lowestoft, Yarmouth, Wells, Lynn, &c.—send to market by coasting vessels as much corn as is carried over the whole extent of the Eastern Counties' system by railway.

Extension of the coasting trade.

Railways, therefore, have not realized the fears of those who supposed they would annihilate the coasting trade. On the contrary, since the era of railways, the coasting trade has largely extended itself. As contrasted with 1843 and 1844, at which period railway communication began to be general in England, the coasting trade of 1859 and 1860 presents the following increase:—

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* Some of the railway companies have found themselves compelled to construct granaries at their principal stations.

COASTING TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN.

ENTERED INWARDS.			CLEARED OUTWARDS.		
YEARS.	SHIPS.	TONNAGE.	YEARS.	SHIPS.	TONNAGE.
1843	131,461	10,822,176	1843	141,697	11,321,138
1844	133,898	10,964,707	1844	145,242	11,694,861
1859	152,228	16,532,117	1859	155,238	16,509,471
1860	152,782	17,003,411	1860	157,419	17,014,399

The coasting trade, it will be thus seen, employed, in 1860, upwards of THIRTY-FOUR MILLION tons of shipping; the foregoing figures representing the shipping which cleared and entered with cargo only.

Our coasting trade not prejudiced by foreign competition.

Most alarming were the predictions of ruin to the shipping interest when this vast trade was unconditionally thrown open to the foreigner in 1854. The slight effect, however, which that alteration of our Navigation laws has had upon the coasting trade is very sufficiently shown by the fact, that of the 34,000,000 tons of shipping engaged in this trade in 1860, only 200,000 tons were foreign. The fact is, that every nation can best carry on its own coasting trade; and that any fear of interference from strangers, where language, custom, interest, and all the varied ramifications of a local business, are in favour of the natives, must be, obviously, without foundation. It does not appear that since our coasting trade has been thrown open, there has been any reduction of rates whatever attributable to foreign interference. Any occasional depression in the trade has, on the contrary, rather been occasioned by the resort to it by British shipowners, whose vessels were disengaged from other less profitable employments. The fact is, that in any case where a nation cannot, and does not, carry on its own coasting trade, there must be causes to which that circumstance is to be attributed, which render it desirable that the trade should be unrestricted.

The coasting trade of London.

The coasting trade of London forms an important proportion of the entire coasting trade of Great Britain and Ireland, as will be demonstrated by the following comparisons :—

Coasting Trade of England and of London, 1860.

	Sailing Vessels.		Steam Vessels.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
ENTERED.						
United Kingdom . . .	124,114	9,707,710	29,668	7,295,701	153,782	17,003,411
London	15,533	2,153,252	2,832	1,001,309	18,365	3,154,561
CLEARED.						
United Kingdom . . .	127,971	9,847,859	29,448	7,166,540	157.419	7,014,399
London	6,925	473,995	1,893	603,009	8,818	1,077,004

The large extent of the coasting trade of London is due, of course, to the very large population to be supplied. The three principal articles brought to the port by coasting-vessels are those for which there are three special markets in the metropolis :—namely, Fish, Corn, and Coal. The great bulk of the tonnage of the coasting vessels is employed in one or other of these trades.

The fish trade of Billingsgate.

The fisheries around the coast of Great Britain have been, and still are, great adjuncts of our coasting trade; and, as already observed, the fishing trade centres itself at Billingsgate, and is, indeed, to a great extent carried on with the capital supplied by that great fish-market. Up to a comparatively recent period, London was almost the only market in England for fish. This arose less from the absence of demand, than from the difficulty of supply. Fish being a commodity which requires to be brought to table in the freshest possible condition, it does not admit of carriage, except under the most favourable circumstances. Before the introduction of railways, therefore, fish could rarely reach the consumer in the great inland towns of the country in such a condition as to make it an acceptable article of food. But the Thames afforded facilities for bringing fish to the London market with great expedition and in perfection, and the great population of the metropolis secured a ready sale.

Abundance of fish on the British coasts.

The coasts of Great Britain abound, at all seasons of the year, with most descriptions of the finest fish. This is supposed to result from the number of our rivers, near the mouths of which the fish appear to find their best feeding-grounds. Almost every village on our coast has its fishermen; but the two great centres of fishing are the port of Yarmouth, on the east coast, and Brixham, in Torbay, upon the south. In the North Sea, between Yarmouth and the coast of Holland, are numerous banks, which afford the finest fishing-grounds hitherto explored for turbot, cod, and other fish. The fishermen of Yarmouth, and other places on the coast, resort to these banks in their fishing vessels, which are sometimes so numerous as to form a little fleet. They generally remain, weather permitting, on the fishing-station from six weeks to two months at a time, at the lapse of which period they return home to mend their nets, repair their vessels, and refresh themselves after so considerable a period of

The North Sea fishery.

fatiguing labour. A fast-sailing cutter, or sometimes a steam-vessel, visits the fishing-station every day, carrying supplies of stores to the fishermen, and collecting the fish which have been caught from the various boats. With these she proceeds, as the wind and weather and other circumstances will allow, either to Yarmouth or, even more frequently, at once to Billingsgate. Formerly the fish landed at Yarmouth were sent to Billingsgate in light vans, drawn by horses, which, in consequence of the nature of the service, were exempted by Act of Parliament from post-horse duty. The railway is, of course, now substituted for the vans; and the railway affords facilities for the distribution of the fish which the van could not provide. At the present time, the fish from the eastern coast are brought up every night by special "fish trains" devoted to the service. The telegraph makes known to the salesmen in Billingsgate the quantity and descriptions of fish *en route*, and arrangements are made for its delivery either at Billingsgate or to the several railway stations. The distribution of fish is now managed with such facility, that the inhabitants of such towns as Birmingham, Leicester, Nottingham, &c., are supplied with fish almost as soon as the inhabitants of London.

Supply of the market,

and distribution of the fish.

London also supplies many of the towns upon the coast with fish. Brighton, for example, draws its chief fish supply from London, and Hastings and Dover are also largely served by Billingsgate, although those ports have many fishing-boats and fishermen of their own. The fact is, that when the deep-sea fishermen of such ports are on their fishing-stations, they often find it more to their interest to consign their fish to the great market, where its sale is sure, than to carry it to some perhaps more distant port which affords a less certain market. This is another illustration of what has so frequently been observed before, that "there can be but one great market."

The Torbay fishery.

The Torbay fishery is very prolific of red mullet, dory, and some other delicate descriptions of fish which the North Sea fishery does not afford in such abundance. Formerly there was much difficulty in getting these fish to market in good condition: indeed, epicures in the days of George the Fourth were known to resort to Torbay for the purpose of eating its fish in perfection.* In those days red mullet rarely got farther east than Bath, but since the Great Western Railway has reached Torquay this delicate fish can be sent in perfect condition to the London market, and is sold at the most expensive fish shops at from 1*s.* to 2*s.* 6*d.* a-piece, according to the size. It should be mentioned that red mullet are now caught in much greater numbers and of much larger size than formerly. This arises from the use of deep-sea fishing-nets. The mullet is a fish which swims deep; generally, it is said, below a mackerel shoal. The nets formerly used only took the smaller fish which swam nearest to the surface of the water; the deep-sea nets now inclose the larger fish. It is probably owing to an imperfect system of fishing, that at Venice, where

Red mullet.

Deep-sea fishing-nets.

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* "The late Duke of Portland was in the habit of going to Weymouth during "the summer months for the sake of the red mullet which formerly abounded "there. The largest used to be had for threepence or fourpence apiece, but he "has been known to give two guineas for one weighing a pound and a half. His "Grace's custom was to put all the livers into a butter boat, to avoid the chances "of inequality, very properly considering that to be helped to a mullet in the "condition of an East Indian nabob would be too severe a shock for the nerves "or spirits of any man. The red mullet have now nearly deserted Weymouth "for the coast of Cornwall, whither we recommend the connoisseur to repair in "the dog days, taking care to pay his respect to the dories of Plymouth on the "way, and he will have the pleasure of following the example of Quin."—"The Art of Dining," vide *Quarterly Review,* July, 1835. [It may be mentioned that red mullet are rarely taken at Weymouth in the present day. The white, or grey mullet, which are common there, are, however, very admirable fish. They are chiefly taken in the arm of the sea which runs up behind the Chesil bank.]

red mullet are almost as common as herrings, the fish are even smaller than with us.

Abundant as are the fish upon our coasts, and large as is the amount of money expended on this article of human sustenance, fishermen are proverbially poor. At various periods elaborate efforts have been made to promote fishing and the consumption of fish. The Reformation appears to have had a prejudicial effect upon the fish trade, fasts from flesh being no longer observed by the population. To remedy this an Act was passed in 1563, entitled "an Act for Eating Fish." By this statute it was enacted that, "for the maintenance of shipping, the increase "of fishermen and mariners, the repairing of ports, "towns, and the increase of the fish victual of the "realm, it should not be lawful for any to eat flesh "on Wednesdays and Saturdays, under the forfeiture "of 3*l*. for each offence; excepting cases of sickness "and also those by special license to be obtained, for "which licenses peers were to pay 1*l*. 6*s*. 8*d*. to the "poor-box of the parish, knights and their wives "13*s*. 4*d*., and others 6*s*. 8*d*. each. But no license "was to extend to eating BEEF on those days at any "time of the year; or to the eating of veal between "Michaelmas and the 1st of May." Wednesday was afterwards excepted from this political fasting, but victuallers were forbidden "to utter flesh" in Lent, or on "Fridays and Saturdays" (27 Eliz. c. 2).

Effects of the Reformation on the fish trade.

In the reign of Charles I. (1633) an association was formed, under the auspices of the Earl of Pembroke, Sir William Courten and others, for the purpose of "promoting the fishery." The object seems to have been to obtain a monopoly of the fishing trade. King Charles, "to encourage this laudable object," enjoined Lent to be more strictly observed, prohibited fish caught by foreigners to be imported, and agreed

The fish trade under Charles I.

to purchase of the company his naval stores, and all the fish required for his Royal Navy. All this, however, came to nothing. In 1677, during the reign of Charles II., an attempt was made to revive the Association under another name—"The Company of the Royal Fishery of England." The Duke of York, the Earl of Danby, Lord Treasurer, and many lords and gentlemen of the court, were patrons. The king gave the company great privileges, and promised them a premium of 20*l.* on every dogger or buss they should build and fit out, "such premium to be paid out of the customs of the Port of London." The capital of this company, which did not exceed 12,000*l.*, was expended in the purchase and equipment of busses, which were chiefly captured by the French; and the company, having run into debt, was broken up in 1680. In 1683, and again in 1695, attempts were made to renew it, but they were unsuccessful.

and Charles II.

The "Society of Arts" promotes the supply of London with fish,

In the next century, the Society of Arts promoted a company "for supplying London with Fish brought from the Coast by Land Carriage." This company, which was set on foot in 1761, was suggested by Mr. Tull, and was put under the management of Capt. Blake. Its prospectus stated that "the Dutch annually "received from this country the enormous sum of "100,000*l.* for the single article of Turbot, and also "large sums for other species of fish."* The company was, therefore, started as "a patriotic undertaking;" but it, nevertheless, met with the most determined opposition from the fishmongers of Billingsgate. In 1763, it found itself in difficulties, "defeated," as it represented, "by the acts of those who were interested in keeping up the price of fish." The Society of Arts, "fully satisfied of the integrity and propriety of his conduct," made a further grant to Captain Blake, the manager of the company; and Parliament, "considering that the undertaking, though attended "with loss to the patriotic society and the manager, "had been very advantageous to the public, in greatly "reducing the price of fish," granted Captain Blake 2,500*l.* "to enable him to persevere in his laudable attempts." The Society of Arts at the same time offered a premium of 5*l.* for every hundred turbots of sixteen inches in length from the eye to the fork of the tail, caught by British subjects, and offered for sale in London or Westminster between the 1st May and 31st August, 1764.

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* For particulars of our present fish supply from Holland, vide antè, pp. 248,9.

and offers a premium for turbots.

We are not apprised how much the Society of Arts was called upon to pay in the shape of bounty upon turbot. But the agitation arising out of this question had the effect of directing the attention of the public at the time to new sources of fish supply. Singularly enough, the great attraction of 1764 seems to have been the very spot to which public attention was directed last year (nearly a century after), as a resort of fish never yet sufficiently explored. It will be remembered, that last year (1861), there appeared in the London newspapers remarkable accounts of a great cod fishery, said to exist near an island of the Atlantic, off the Hebrides. In 1764, it appears that the Greenland whale-fishery proved a failure; but, as some compensation for their disappointment in Greenland, the ships fell in, near an island, about forty miles north-north-east from the island of Lewis, with a species of small whale; and, this matter being discussed, reference was made back to the works of Sir William Monson, who stated that "from Rona "there runs a bank towards Tillhead, in Ireland, "which affords a great quantity of the best cod and "ling."* Sir William Monson complained that this

Sources of our fish supply.

The "Rockall" fishing bank.

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* Naval Tracts, book iv.

fishery had been neglected for a century previous to his time (temp. Queen Elizabeth); and it appears to have been neglected for three centuries after. A Committee of the House of Commons on the Fisheries, in 1789, was informed by Captain Huddart, that when employed on a maritime survey of the coast of Ireland, in 1777, he fished upon the bank in question, "where he found the cod as plentiful, and as good as "at Newfoundland." It is not a little singular, that despite the testimonies which have been borne for three centuries to the value of the fishery upon this bank, so immediately adjacent to the eastern coasts of Great Britain and Ireland, no effectual measures should ever yet have been taken to fish it.

"Fine mackerel" sold at three halfpence a piece, A.D. 1768.

In 1768, in consequence of the undue price of butcher's meat, Sir Stephen Janssen, an eminent London merchant, offered a bounty on fishing-boats which would come up the Thames to market; and it is recorded that, in consequence, fine mackerel were sold in London at 1½*d.* each, and the price of butcher's meat is said to have been thereby lowered 1*d.* per lb. About 1780, it would appear that Harwich had established a large fishing trade, and that it was supplying the metropolis with not less than 2,000 tons per annum of cod, haddock, whiting, and skate. The Harwich fishermen were the first, on our coast, who acquired the method of using long lines in the winter. This they obtained from an Englishman who had been employed in the Dutch fishery on the Doggerbank. At this time, and for many years after, the fishermen of our coasts very justly complained of the disadvantages to which they were subjected by reason of the exorbitant duties on salt, which prevented them from curing their surplus fish; and which, up to a very recent period, was no doubt one great cause of the non-extension of our fisheries.

A fishery at Harwich, A.D. 1780.

A library might be filled with the Acts of Parliament, Reports of Parliamentary Committees, plans, proposals, pamphlets, and prospectuses which have, at various times, been printed and published with a view to promote the fishing trade. Amongst the numerous proposals of that great year of speculation, 1825, were a number of companies for promoting fishing enterprise. Amongst others were

Fishing speculations, A.D. 1825.

"I. THE LONDON, BRIGHTON, AND DEVONSHIRE FISHING AND STEAM NAVIGATION COMPANY. Capital, 500,000*l.*

"*Chairman.*—William Williams, Esq., M.P. *Directors.*—Alderman Bridges, Sir Charles Flower, Mr. Thomas Read Kemp, Alderman Sir Matthew Wood, &c.

"*Objects.*—To supply fish from Torbay to the London and Brighton markets by the aid of steam navigation. Steamers were to bring fish from Torbay to Brighton; from thence they were to be despatched to London by post vans. The Company contemplated a return passenger traffic from London and Brighton to the coast of Devonshire."

"II. THE METROPOLITAN FISH COMPANY. Capital, 300,000*l.*

"*Chairman.*—Lord George Seymour. *Bankers.*—Messrs. Veres, Ward, and Co. *Solicitors.*—Messrs. Dawes and Chalfield.

"*Object.*—To extend the Consumption of Fish.

"A prospectus affords no room for the details of such an undertaking."

This second company, it may be observed, raised the wrath of the fishermen (or rather, more probably, of the Billingsgate fish-salesmen). They prepared and posted a handbill, in which they declared that "the establishment of the projected fish "companies would be a certain and effectual means "of impoverishing a numerous and industrious "class of the country." They observed that "a "company with similar objects was formed in 1676, "with a capital of 300,000*l.*, but that it lasted a "very few years. That another was formed in

"1750 with a capital of 500,000*l.*, which was aided "by Acts of Parliament granting bounties on the "number of vessels employed and the quantity of "fish brought to market, and also an annual bonus "of 3*l.* 10*s.* per cent. to the shareholders, but that "this failed in seven years." The fishermen seem to have got the best of it, for the company came to nothing; indeed, how they were to effect their object—that of "promoting the consumption of fish" (unless they intended greatly to reduce its price)—is difficult to comprehend. These, however, were by no means the only projects of the period. A company was proposed to establish a fish market on the Regent's Canal, near Portland Place, bringing fish from Billingsgate by the canal, and making use of its waters for cleaning them. Another project, of which the Duke of Somerset was patron, proposed to form a Westminster Fish Company. The details of the latter company were, however, by no means specified. Of all the projects of the period the Hungerford Fish Market was the only one brought into operation; and at the moment this is written that market is in course of demolition, to make way for a new station of the South-Eastern Railway.

Their failure.

New fish markets projected.

The discovery of a flint-headed axe stuck into a bed of coal exposed to day in Monmouthshire, of axes and picks of solid oak in some old excavations through the Kilburn coal in Derbyshire, and of stone hammer-heads, flint wedges, and wheels of solid wood in some old coal-workings near Ashby-de-la-Zouch, have been accepted as proof that the Ancient Britons, the aborigines of our country, understood the use of coal, and worked it in different parts of Britain. From the position of many of their stations, close to the outcrop of the coal-seams; from the number of

COAL worked in England

by the Ancient Britons,

coal cinders and scoriæ found amongst the remains of their towns and villages, and from the discovery of workings in polygonal chambers at the Ardley mine, near Wigan, there seems to be no doubt that coal was worked and used by the Romans during their sojourn in our island. The Saxon Chronicle of the Abbey of Peterborough mentions, "sixty loads of wood, twelve loads of coal, and six loads of peat," among the items for which the Abbot Ceolred let the land of Sempringham to Wulfred, A.D. 852, and it is supposed that the very word "Coal" is derived from the Saxon "col" (Dutch and German, "kohle"). No mention is made of coal or any other mineral in Doomsday book; but in the "Boldon book," containing a census of portions of the northern counties in the time of Henry II., mention is twice made of coal as being used by a carpenter and smith in villages near Bishops-Wearmouth.

Romans, and Saxons.

No mention of coal in Doomsday Book.

There is reason to believe that coals were sent to London by sea early in the thirteenth century, if not before. A lane immediately outside Newgate, in what were then suburbs of London, was called by the name of "Sea-coal Lane," as early as the year 1253. It retains the name to this day. Stow says that lime used to be burned in this lane with sea-coal. The first mention of coals in any document of public authority is, however, in a charter granted by King Henry III., A.D. 1259, to the freemen of Newcastle-on-Tyne, by which he gave them liberty "to dig for coals." Not long afterwards sea-coals were certainly sent from the Tyne to London; for, in 1306, the Lords and Commons in Parliament assembled presented a petition to King Edward I., against the use of coals, who thereupon issued a proclamation, forbidding the use of that fuel, as contaminating the atmosphere, and

Coal first sent to London by sea.

"Sea-coal Lane," A.D. 1253.

Coals used in London, A.D. 1306.

The use of coal forbidden.

injurious to public health. The proclamation, however, appears to have been abortive, for the use of coals became largely extended in the fifteenth century, during which period there are abundant records of the opening of mines in different parts of Northumberland and Durham, and the shipment of coals at Blyth, Sunderland, Newcastle, and Tynemouth. The coal trade was considered very flourishing in the times of Elizabeth and James I. Charles I. burdened it with excessive taxation and grievous monopolies, under which coal rose in the Port of London to the extraordinary price of 4*l.* per chaldron, a price which was maintained until Newcastle was taken by the Scottish army, when the House of Commons took into their own hands the regulation of the coal trade, and at once shipped supplies to London for the use of the poor. In 1670 (time of Charles II.), about 200,000 chaldrons of coals were annually consumed in England; and in 1690 (time of William III.), upwards of 300,000 chaldrons. From this time, the demand for coals went on increasing; but the supply was necessarily limited, first by the difficulty of working mines of any depth by horse-power,* and second, by the danger attending the use of any lights in caverns liable to produce inflammable gases. The discovery of the steam engine by Watt in 1784, and the subsequent application of the safety lamp, first used

The trade, however, flourishes.

Coals first burdened with taxation, temp. Ch. I.

Increase of consumption, temp. Ch. II.

The supply limited by natural obstacles.

These obstacles surmounted.

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* In a letter to a friend, written by Sir John Clerk, in 1739, he gives an interesting account of the collieries at Whitehaven, belonging to Sir James Lowther. He says, "the coals are drawn up by an engine turned by two horses, which go their "circuits at full trot every eight hours, and then change, being employed every "twenty-four hours." He gives particulars of the quantity raised and its cost, and states that, after paying all expenses, the proprietor clears about 600*l.* a year from these mines. The present Earl of Lonsdale would probably consider a profit of 600*l.* *a week* nearer what he ought to receive as profit from his coal mines: yet his ancestor was thought a rich man in his day. Such is the difference between 1740 and 1860, and between a steam engine and an engine turned by two horses at full trot.

about 1815, worked, however, a complete revolution in coal mining, by giving safe access to the pits and light to the miners working in them, and by enabling their contents to be brought to the surface with facility from any depths at which they can be worked.

The quantity of coal raised in Great Britain has been thus estimated :—

Increase of the quantity raised.

YEAR.	TONS.
1800	10,000,000
1819	13,000,000
1839	30,000,000
1859	71,979,765*

Yield of the coal-fields of England and other countries.

The quantity of coal now raised in this country is one-third greater than the combined produce of all the remaining coal-fields of the world; and is shown in the following synopsis, compiled by Mr. Hull for his work on "The Coal-fields of Great Britain."

ANNUAL PRODUCTION OF COAL IN VARIOUS COUNTRIES.

COUNTRIES.	TONS.	TONS.
Great Britain and Ireland (1859)		71,979,765
North America (1860)		21,000,000
Prussia, Saxony, and Hanover		12,000,000
Belgium (1860)		8,900,000
France (1860)		7,900,000
British Colonies in America		1,500,000
Austrian Empire (1858), viz. :—		
Austria	34,852	
Bohemia	569,079	
Moravia and Silesia	362,522	
Hungary	110,666	
Servia and Banat	83,905	
Styria	1,876	
		1,162,900
Spain (1860)		300,000
Russian Empire (estimated)		1,500,000
Japan, China, Borneo, and Australia (estimated)		2,000,000
Total produce of all countries		128,242,673

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* *Vide* "Hunt's Mineral Statistics of Great Britain."

Present uses of coal.

"The uses to which coal is applicable," says Mr. Hull, "and the products which may be extracted from it, are almost limitless. In Britain alone it propels 5,200 locomotive engines with their trains over 9,500 miles of railway. It heats 607 iron-furnaces, besides those for smelting other ores. It sets in motion the machinery of 3,000 factories, 2,500 steam vessels and smaller craft, and lights I dare not say how many forges, fires, stoves, and ovens. It unlocks, when heated, invisible gases to illumine our streets, public buildings, and dwellings by night, producing the cheapest, most manageable, and withal most agreeable of lights. When gently distilled, it pours forth streams of pitch and oil; with the paraffine we can light our lamps, lubricate machinery, and, when solidified, produce candles as fine as alabaster. From the tar, the most beautiful violet and rose-coloured dyes may be elaborated; and we can unlock the gums, essences, and scents, resembling those of cloves, almonds, and spices, which have lain dormant since the time when the coal-plants themselves were growing. Lastly, the very smoke of our chimneys has its use, for it is a great disinfecting agent in populous towns."

Sale of coal in London by admeasurement, prior to 1831.

Abuses of this system.

Fraud on the consumer.

Prior to 1831, all coals sold in London were sold by measurement. But this system gave rise to great abuse. Dr. Hutton, the celebrated mathematician, who was a native of Newcastle-on-Tyne, and well acquainted with the coal trade, stated before a Parliamentary Committee, that "if a coal measuring "exactly a cubic yard (nearly equal to five bushels) "be broken into pieces of a moderate size, it will "measure seven bushels and a half; if broken very "small, it will measure nine bushels." The Newcastle shippers and London coal-dealers accordingly insisted on being supplied by the coal-owners with large coals only. Before they reached the consumer, however, these coals were broken into smaller portions; and as the shipper, the wholesale dealer, and the retailer, each had their profit out of the breakage, by the time the coals reached the cellar of the consumer, he received about half or two-thirds only of the quantity which had been sold for a chaldron at the place of shipment. It has been stated that the profits of many of the London retailers, when the coal was sold by measurement, arose chiefly from the increase of measure consequent on breakage.

Evil effects on the coal-owner.

Nor was the fraud on the consumer the only evil arising from this system. Inasmuch as the buyer at the port of shipment would only receive large coal, the coal-owner was driven to the necessity of separating the large from the small coal by a process called "screening" (*i.e.* passing the coal over a grating). The coal, as it underwent this operation, was necessarily much broken, and all this small coal, as it was not readily marketable, had to be consumed on the spot, in order to get rid of it; thus occasioning not only great waste of admirable coal, but absolute injury to growing crops, &c., from the smoke occasioned by these large burnings. It was stated to the House of Lords, that the coal-owner was often obliged to charge a higher price upon the coal he sold in order to indemnify himself for the loss sustained from the quantity of coal thus wasted, and for the compensation he was obliged to pay for the injury inflicted upon others.

Coals directed to be sold by weight.

Parliament at length put a termination to this nuisance, by enacting that coals should be sold by weight instead of measure. Unhappily, however, Parliament could not put an end altogether to the effects of a system which had been persisted in for upwards of a century, and under which habits and customs had grown up which had engrafted themselves into our social system. The unloading of the coal-ships in the Pool, below London Bridge, which is an impediment to the navigation of the river; the compulsory employment of licensed "coal-whippers" in the task of unloading; the cost entailed

Inconveniences which grew up under the old system, and which still continue.

for lighterage from the ship's side to some uptown coal-wharf; the extra profit which the consumer is thereby forced to pay to some second, and even, in many cases, to a third retail dealer; the very system under which our London coal-cellars are constructed, with holes in the pavement too small to admit good-sized coals without breakage;* all these are remnants of the system which grew up under the admeasurement, and which have remained to us despite all alterations in the coal trade ever since.

Coals now supplied to the metropolis.

It is probable that these inconveniences, if they are ever entirely surmounted, will be overcome by the diversion of the bulk of the coal supply. Since 1850, the internal consumption of coal in London has been gradually undergoing a great change. The railways running through the coal-fields of the midland counties, have brought the metropolis nearer to a source of supply, cheaper, and in some respects equal to the supply of the coal-fields of the north. The effect has been to afford the population of the metropolis a greatly increased quantity of coals, at rates much lower than those which prevailed twenty years ago. Whilst in 1850 we only received in London three and a half million tons of coals, in 1860 we received five millions, of which the extra one and a half million tons came to London by the railways. The latter supply is most rapidly increasing, whilst the former is fully maintained, and would probably increase also, were not the northern collieries so fully employed in the large export trade which has latterly grown up.

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* In other large towns of England, coals are delivered *in bulk,* and into apertures of such ample size as to admit of receiving large coals. Nothing can be worse than the existing system of round holes in the centre of our London pavements. They are dangerous, unsightly, and inadequate. Admitting that a cellar under the pavement is a good place of deposit for coals, the trap entrance should at any rate be made in the curb or close to the house front. The present position of this hole is unknown in any city but our own.

The quantity of coals imported into London in the various years since 1832, when coals were first required to be measured by tonnage, will be seen by the following table:—

Coal brought to London from 1832 to 1860.

COAL, CULM, AND CINDERS IMPORTED INTO LONDON, AND ENTERED AT THE COAL MARKET.

Period.	Seaborne.	Brought by Railway, Canal, and Common Road, within the London District.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
1832	2,139,078		
1833	2,010,409		
1834	2,078,685		
1835	2,298,812		
1836	2,398,352		
1837	2,626,997		
1838	2,581,085		
1839	2,625,323		
1840	2,566,899		
1841	2,909,144		
1842	2,723,200		
1843	2,628,520		
1844	2,490,910		
1845	3,403,320		
1846	2,953,755		
1847	3,280,420		
1848	3,418,340		
1849	3,339,146		
1850	3,553,304	84,575	3,637,879
1851	3,236,542	272,114	3,508,656
1852	3,330,428	414,917	3,745,345
1853	3,373,256	653,729	4,026,985
1854	3,399,561	979,171	4,378,732
1855	3,016,868	1,162,487	4,179,355
1856	3,119,884	1,273,270	4,393,154
1857	3,133,459	1,235,249	4,368,708
1858	3,266,446	1,213,464	4,479,910
1859	3,299,170	1,210,776	4,509,946
1860	3,573,377	1,499,899	5,073,276

The average prices of the best household coals in the London market will be shown by the following:—

Average prices of coal in London during the present century.

TABLE SHOWING THE AVERAGE PRICES OF BEST HOUSEHOLD COALS IN THE LONDON MARKET.

		s.	d.			s.	d.			s.	d.
1805	(per chaldron*)	44	9	1824	(per chaldron)	41	8	1843	(per ton)	20	2
1806	,,	44	5	1825	,,	41	0	1844	,,	22	10
1807	,,	45	10	1826	,,	37	4	1845	,,	19	2
1808	,,	49	3	1827	,,	38	6	1846	,,	17	11
1809	,,	54	6	1828	,,	38	2	1847	,,	20	10
1810	,,	51	8	1829	,,	35	1	1848	,,	18	2
1811	,,	47	8	1830	,,	36	4	1849	,,	17	8
1812	,,	44	10	1831	,,	33	6	1850	,,	17	1
1813	,,	52	5	1832	(per ton)	21	11	1851	,,	16	1
1814	,,	59	1	1833	,,	18	3	1852	,,	16	6
1815	,,	46	9	1834	,,	20	6	1853	,,	21	2
1816	,,	41	8	1835	,,	21	11	1854	,,	23	9
1817	,,	40	4	1836	,,	22	11	1855	,,	21	11
1818	,,	39	10	1837	,,	24	0	1856	,,	18	11
1819	,,	41	10	1838	,,	24	6	1857	,,	18	8
1820	,,	42	11	1839	,,	23	8	1858	,,	18	5
1821	,,	43	8	1840	,,	23	7	1859	,,	18	4
1822	,,	43	0	1841	,,	22	4	1860	,,	20	1
1823	,,	46	3	1842	,,	21	2	1861	,,	19	6

Extent of our coal-fields.

The great repositories of coal in England are in the ten counties of Northumberland and Durham, Cumberland, Lancashire, Yorkshire and Derbyshire, Staffordshire, Warwickshire, Leicestershire, and Somerset. There are also large fields of coal in both North and South Wales. The area of the various coal-fields is estimated as follows :—

COAL-FIELDS.	SQ. MILES.	COAL-FIELDS.	SQ. MILES.
Northumberland and Durham .	460	Brought forward . . .	1675
Cumberland (Whitehaven) . . .	25	Somersetshire	150
Lancashire	217	Shropshire (Coalbrookdale) . .	28
Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Yorkshire	760	Gloucestershire (Dean Forest) .	34
Staffordshire, North	75	Worcestershire (Forest of Wyre)†	—
,, South	93	North Wales (Denbighshire and Flint)	82
Leicestershire	15	South Wales (Glamorganshire) .	906
Warwickshire	30		
Carried forward . . .	1675	Total	2875

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* The weight of a "chaldron" would be, properly, 25½ cwt.

† Not fully explored. The coal seams are thin and of inferior quality.

Sources of the supply of coals to London.

The coals brought to London by sea come almost exclusively from the great north-coast coal-fields of Northumberland and Durham. The south coast of England has also been, for the most part, hitherto supplied with these coals. The coals of Cumberland are chiefly exported to Ireland; those of Lancashire are mostly used in the manufactories of the district; except the canal-coals from the collieries near Wigan, which have recently been sent to London by railway. Coals from the Derbyshire, Nottinghamshire, and Yorkshire coal-fields, especially those from Clay Cross in the first and Barnsley in the latter-mentioned county, have, during the last ten or twelve years, come into very large consumption in London, where they are received by railway. The North Staffordshire coal, which is by no means fully worked, is used in the potteries, and the South Staffordshire in the iron manufacture. The Leicestershire and Warwickshire coals are coming into use in London, and are largely consumed in the counties to the north-west of the metropolis. The Somersetshire coals, worked in the neighbourhood of Radstock, form a valuable supply for the western and south-western counties, and will be more largely used when the district is more developed. The coals of Denbighshire, better known as Ruabon coals, are brought in some quantities to London by the Great Western Railway, but are not so highly esteemed as those of the coal-fields of the Midland Counties. The coals of South Wales, which is the largest field of all, are less generally known in the metropolis than almost any other. They are largely used on the spot in the iron manufacture carried on at Merthyr Tydvil, Ebbw Vale, &c., and in the copper-smelting works at Swansea. Some of the coals of this dis-

Midland coals.

Staffordshire coals.

Somersetshire.

Welsh coals.

Steam coals from the South Wales coal-field.

trict, being semi-bituminous, have been pronounced the best in England for the purposes of marine steam-engines, and are therefore largely carried from Cardiff to London, Liverpool, Southampton, Portsmouth, and elsewhere, for the purposes of navigation. The quantity of coal in the South Wales coal-field is immense. It is calculated that there are 16,000 millions of tons of coal lying within reach. The quantity worked here in 1859 was nine and a half millions of tons. Taking the production of future years at ten millions, the above-estimated supply would last for 1,600 years to come.

Quantities of coals composing the London supply, A.D. 1860.

The quantity of coals brought to London from the various coal-fields, in 1860, will be shown by the following table:—

BY SEA.		BY RAILWAY, &c.	
FROM	TONS.	BY	TONS.
Newcastle	1,347,574	London and North Western	693,418
Sunderland	977,519		
Hartlepool	703,836	Great Northern	502,813
Seaham	210,418	Eastern Counties	121,225
Wales	130,009	Great Western	63,944
Middlesborough	61,183	Midland	58,496
Yorkshire, &c.	45,230	South Western	17,589
Blyth	40,986	South Eastern	14,585
Scotland	13,002	Hertford, Luton, &c.	4,417
Small Coal	25,047	London, Tilbury, &c.	958
Cinders	16,671	London, Brighton, &c.	104
Culm	1,902	Canal and Road	22,353
TOTAL	3,573,377	TOTAL	1,499,899

Absence of convenient railway

Although the railways have been making rapid progress in coal traffic, it will be observed that all the Northumberland and Durham coals brought to London come by sea. This does not alone result from the proximity of the coal-field to the coast; on the contrary, many of the pits are situated at some distance from the point of shipment. What really prevents the coal of Northumberland and Durham reaching us by railway, is the want of any direct and unbroken communication between London and the coal-fields of those counties. The Great Northern, which is the line of railway out of London which has the nearest approach to those parts, extends no further than the Askern Junction, a few miles past Doncaster, in South Yorkshire; and two or three lines of other companies have to be traversed before reaching Darlington, which may be taken as the railway centre of the coal-field. This complication of interests prevents the possibility of the railway companies entering London from fixing any certain price for the conveyance of coals from the northern coal-fields.

communication between London and the northern collieries.

Relative cost of freight by sea and railway.

If there was any one railway company, with a line constructed at a moderate cost upon favourable gradients for its up-traffic, which could bring coals to London from the northern coal-field, it is probable that the coals of that district might reach the metropolis at a cost for transit not largely exceeding the cost of conveyance by sea. At present the cost of freight by an ordinary collier varies very much according to the supply of shipping. During the last three years it has varied from 5*s.* to upwards of 9*s.* per ton; those being, however, extreme rates. Probably, 6*s.* 3*d.* to 6*s.* 6*d.* per ton, may be taken as an average cost.* The present charge of the Great Northern Railway from London to York per ton of *twenty-*

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* To this is to be added the cost of lighterage, and of merchants' charges in London, which, of course, enhances the amount paid by the consumer.

one cwt. is 9*s.* 7*d.* Supposing the same proportionate mileage to be charged from York to Darlington, the charge for the railway conveyance of coals would be 13*s.* 9½*d.* per ton. But this charge will certainly admit of considerable reduction. It has been estimated that a railway company can carry coals at a profit at ¼*d.* per ton per mile, supposing the traffic capable of being worked economically and steadily. A farthing per ton per mile upon the distance between Darlington and London is unquestionably less than the present average rates of freight to London from the ports of shipment in the north; and in regularity, certainty as to traffic, and expedition of delivery, a railway would unquestionably offer many advantages over a sea route. The question, however, as to such a traffic, must, of course, mainly depend upon the quantities to be carried. A million tons per annum would be the least that such a railway must carry to make the traffic pay; but, large as this quantity may appear, it is a traffic which, perhaps, it is not unreasonable to look for, considering the rapidly increasing development of coal traffic, not only in London, but in all the agricultural counties of the South of England.

Advantages to the consumer of the supplies by railway.

One great advantage of the railway coal traffic is undoubtedly to bring the supply much nearer to the door of the consumer, and thereby to avoid one heavy item of cost in the conveyance of coals from the river-side to the consumer's cellar. London has become so vast, its suburbs now extend so many miles in every direction from the river-side, that if we had not railway facilities round different parts of London, the supply of such heavy articles as coals from the river Thames, might be expected, at no distant period, not to be unattended with difficulty; especially considering that the draught in every direction from the river-side is on an inclination unfavourable to the load. At the present time, no less than 1*s*. a ton extra is charged even by the railway companies for the supply of coals to the outlying districts on the high levels—such as Highgate and Hampstead—as well as at certain distances beyond the railway station. There can be little doubt that, had the river-side coal merchants not been subjected to the competition of those concerned in the supply of railway coals, a charge would, long ere this, have been made on the consumer for the transport of coals from the river-side to points of London within, probably, even more ordinary limits.

Screw steam-vessels employed in the coal trade.

Of late years the number of screw steam-vessels of large tonnage employed in the coal trade has been extensively increasing; and there can be no doubt that in many respects their employment is attended with advantage. They perform the voyage to and fro with a great saving of time, and they are worked with no greater cost for labour, and at less expense for wear and tear, than ordinary sailing vessels. The great difficulty attending the regular supply of London with coal some years ago, was the prevalence of contrary winds, which kept fleets of colliers in the rivers of the north, or in Yarmouth Roads, or beating about the mouth of the Thames, sometimes for weeks together. The duration of the voyage of the screw steamer is, on the other hand, subject to little or no variation. Her owner can depend on her arrival with the utmost certainty; and there can, therefore, be now no doubt as to the supply of coal which is likely to reach the market.

Their advantages

and drawbacks.

Notwithstanding these advantages, it has been found that there is a limit to the use of these vessels. The capital invested in them being much larger than the capital ordinarily represented by sailing colliers of equal capacity, the steamer will not bear detention either at the port of shipment or delivery. Under the regulations of the Tyne and the Thames, therefore, which regulate the order in which colliers shall receive and discharge their cargoes, the owner of the screw collier would probably suffer heavily from the length of time the steam-ship was detained, were he driven to compete with the ordinary sailing-vessel. In order to avoid this, he has, therefore, generally, an arrangement or understanding with coal-owners or shippers, by which he is afforded facilities for loading; and as the coals shipped are usually for steam purposes, Government contracts, gas-works, &c. the screw vessels are able to land their cargoes at points where any detention in discharging is avoided also. Ordinary colliers are only able to unload at the rate of about fifty tons per day. The screw steamers rarely allow more than forty-eight hours to be occupied in the operation.

Screw colliers enabled to conduct the traffic at very low rates of freight.

The screw colliers have, obviously, a great advantage over the sailing-vessels, in the great rapidity of the voyages they are able to perform. This, together with freedom from detention, enables a steamer to do five times the work of sailing-vessels. Being able to do a largely increased amount of work, the owner of the vessel is enabled to conduct the traffic at lower rates of freight. The rates of the screw steamers vary with the rates of sailing-vessels; but are invariably under them. The general rule appears to be that the screw collier's rate of freight shall be kept 6*d*. under the rate of the sailing-vessel; so that when the one is 6*s*. 6*d*. per ton the other is only 6*s*.

Duration of the coal supply of Great Britain.

Various have been the speculations, and conflicting the opinions, as to the duration of our coal supply. Some calculators give us enough coal in Great

Britain to last for 1,000 years; others declare that, at our present rate of consumption, it must be exhausted within 300 or 400. The consumption during the present century has risen from 10 to 72 millions of tons annually. There are various causes which will accelerate this consumption. The increase of population in an accelerated ratio; the increase of manufacturing industry probably at a still greater accelerated rate; the rapid substitution of steam-vessels for sailing ships; and the increasing demand for coal in continental countries, must all tend to accelerate the decrease in our stores of coal in Great Britain. On the other hand, the progress of science will, no doubt, enable the world to economise its consumption; improved modes of mining will enable coal to be brought to market with less waste; and improved boilers and ranges will enable manufacturers and housekeepers to generate steam and heat with less fuel than has hitherto been used. Should prices advance, new mines will also be opened, new discoveries made, and new modes employed for working at depths hitherto unexplored.* We may, therefore, take a tolerably sanguine view as to the future of our coal supply. It is certain "to last our time;" quite as long as any now amongst us or any who will immediately succeed us. We need not speculate with very great anxiety as to what may happen at the expiration of five centuries to come. Our descendants in those days may regard with as little estimation fires made of coal, as we think of the fires made of faggots consumed by our ancestors five centuries gone by.

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* It is contended with great ability by Mr. Hull, in his recent work on the coal-fields of Great Britain, that there is a physical limit to coal mining; that temperature and pressure must be unsurpassable obstacles to working at a greater depth than 4,000 feet from the surface, so that all coal below that depth must for ever remain out of our reach. Upon this point I need only offer one observation. It is, that before the discovery of the safety lamp, at the early part of the present century, it was believed that more than one half the coal mines in England could never be worked or even explored, in consequence of the gaseous vapours and the want of light. It is as much within the bounds of probability today that means will be found to work the coal deposits below 4,000 feet, as it was within the bounds of probability, only fifty years ago, that British miners would be able to work the great majority of the mines which now supply us with the mineral. Taking the difficulty, indeed, to be one of temperature, the probabilities are in favour of rather than against deep mining: for few things are more easily susceptible of improvement than the ventilation of mines. It is admitted that if mining can be carried on at any depth, our supply of coals is, practically, inexhaustible.

Export duties on coal.

It was long considered politic to check the exportation of coal to other countries, both through fear of exhausting the mines, and because it was imagined that our superiority as manufacturers might be endangered. Heavy export duties, varying in amount, were accordingly levied prior to 1835, when they were reduced to an *ad valorem* duty of 10 per cent. In 1842, Sir Robert Peel, "not in "order to suppress foreign manufactures, but for the "purpose of raising some revenue from the articles," imposed duties of 2*s.* per ton on the export of all large coal, and 1*s.* on small coal and culm. In bringing forward his budget in 1845, however, the same statesman announced his intention of abandoning these duties. They had had, he said, "the effect "of checking the foreign coal trade, which had been "rapidly increasing for several years previous; the "revenue raised by them was comparatively in-"significant; they had led to increased and increasing "activity in working mines for coal in foreign "countries, and had reduced the profits of the British "coal shipper." Since 1845, coals have consequently been allowed to be exported at a merely nominal rate of duty, and the quantity exported has rapidly risen to seven millions of tons a year.

The following are the quantities of coal exported to foreign countries in 1860:—

EXPORT OF COALS TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES, 1860.

Table showing the countries to which our coals are now exported.

COUNTRIES.	TONS.	VALUE.
France	1,347,905	£561,427
United States	309,869	192,779
Hamburg	477,587	175,973
Spain and the Canaries	374,736	173,901
Denmark	409,196	160,464
Prussia	384,563	145,229
British East India	270,196	130,682
Holland	308,767	126,088
Russia, Northern Ports	273,287	117,209
Turkey	195,748	91,161
Brazil	162,314	85,101
Sardinia	186,418	81,850
Sweden	199,859	80,442
British North America	149,551	68,252
Malta	126,542	61,159
Cuba	116,127	58,470
Norway	136,218	53,431
Two Sicilies	116,679	53,299
Austrian Territories	112,942	51,163
Portugal, Azores, and Madeira	112,555	48,961
Egypt	90,572	43,009
British West India Islands and British Guiana.	78,122	42,131
Aden	78,904	39,697
Gibraltar	77,150	37,202
Hong Kong	71,859	35,074
China (exclusive of Hong Kong)	67,203	33,498
Russia, Southern Ports	69,203	33,160
Channel Islands	65,060	30,581
Hanover	68,675	28,553
Oldenburg	63,962	26,086
St. Thomas	50,630	24,992
Chili	45,729	20,591
Belgium	47,974	20,475
Ionian Islands	36,110	16,822
Australia	24,899	16,502
Greece	32,194	15,240
British Possessions in South Africa	26,884	14,771
Mecklenburg	36,221	13,502
Uruguay (Monte Video)	26,578	12,869
Bremen	18,811	12,107
Algeria	25,707	11,724
Lubeck	27,008	11,304
Buenos Ayres	14,620	10,450
Other Countries	158,937	77,073
TOTAL	7,074,071	£3,144,454

Argument against our export duty.

The principal quantity of the coal which we export is used for the purposes of steam and railway navigation, and for gas-lighting in the continental cities. There can be no question that, if we refused to allow the free export of our coal, it would lead to the working of coal-fields to a much greater extent abroad, and to our consequent disadvantage. It may be here observed, that the same class of arguments which applies to duties on the export of coals apply to duties on the export of our machinery. As far back as 1834, Sir Robert Peel well observed upon the subject:—

> "As regards the export of machinery, the Legislature has no discretion to exercise, as it cannot prevent the egress of the artisans by whom machinery is made. Foreign countries become acquainted with the power and value of our machinery, and desire to purchase from us. We refuse to sell, except upon such terms as, in point of fact, amount to a prohibition. What follows? Temptations are held out to our artisans and mechanics to emigrate to those countries, for the purpose of instructing the inhabitants in the art of constructing the machinery of which we previously had the exclusive monopoly. The danger is obvious. Our monopoly cannot be retained; because, if we refuse to sell machinery to foreign countries, foreign countries, through the medium of our own artisans, will make it for themselves. We have therefore no discretion. It is better that we should manage our domestic manufacture of machinery by allowing a free export of it, than that we should continue the prohibition, and thereby encourage the emigration of the manufacturer."

It is remarkable that Sir Robert Peel, who gave utterance to these wise observations in 1834, should have failed to see, in 1842, that it is better we should manage our own collieries by allowing a free export of coal, than that we should prohibit such export, and thereby encourage the working of foreign coal mines.

The passenger traffic, of which a large share of the coasting trade of London was formerly composed, has, since the construction of railways, largely left the Thames for outports. Still, however, a considerable steamboat traffic continues on the river, and the coasting trade of London has been largely developed in what is called the "short voyage" trade—a commerce which extends beyond the confines of our own shores. This has been already referred to in another portion of this work, so that little remains to be said concerning the coasting trade of London. That it will increase with the general commerce, the wealth, and the population of this great city is inevitable. It must always form a large proportion of her business, and a fertile source of her profitable enterprise.

APPENDIX.

TABLES.

TABLE No. I.—GENERAL STATEMENT OF EXPORTS FROM, AND IMPORTS INTO, THE UNITED KINGDOM,

In the Years 1850 and 1860.†

Those figures marked thus (*) were disturbed by the war pending at the time.

COUNTRIES AND GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	Population.		Declared Real Value of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures Exported.						Value of Foreign and Colonial Produce Exported.			Value of Foreign and Colonial Produce Imported.		
			1850.		1860.				Official Value.	Computed Real Value.		Official Value.	Computed Real Value.	
	1850.	1860.		Per Capita.		Per Capita.	Increase.	Decrease.	1850.	1854.	1860.	1850.	1854.	1860.
EUROPE:—			£	D.	£	D.	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Russia—European and Asiatic	67,995,000	75,896,000	1,455,000	5⅛	3,268,000	10⅜	1,813,000	—	3,742,000	23,000	2,178,000	1,609,000	*4,259,000	16,202,000
Sweden	3,482,000	3,797,000	151,000	10⅜	550,000	34¾	399,000	—	189,000	250,000	391,000	455,000	2,510,000	3,193,000
Norway	1,408,000	1,580,000	212,000	36⅛	495,000	75⅛	283,000	—	147,000	106,000	136,000	133,000	1,369,000	1,161,000
Denmark, the Faroe Islands, and Heligoland	2,402,000	2,678,000	455,000	45½	730,000	65⅝	275,000	—	139,000	230,000	185,000	1,199,000	2,706,000	2,576,000
Prussia and the Minor German States	33,103,000	36,172,000	7,457,000	54	13,492,000	89½	6,035,000	—	4,124,000	4,584,000	5,205,000	6,219,000	*16,302,000	15,444,000
Holland	3,001,000	3,517,000	3,543,000	282⅞	6,114,000	417⅛	2,571,000	—	2,659,000	2,321,000	3,638,000	4,030,000	6,733,000	8,265,000
Belgium	4,426,000	4,624,000	1,136,000	61⅝	1,612,000	83⅝	476,000	—	2,151,000	1,949,000	2,355,000	1,520,000	3,633,000	4,071,000
France and Switzerland	38,176,000	39,825,000	2,402,000	15⅛	5,250,000	31⅝	2,848,000	—	1,223,000	3,216,000	7,451,000	8,454,000	10,635,000	17,774,000
Channel Islands	143,000	144,000	506,000	849¼	656,000	1093⅜	150,000	—	140,000	138,000	193,000	204,000	331,000	697,000
Spain, the Balearic Islands, and Gibraltar	15,487,000	16,566,000	1,253,000	19⅜	3,635,000	52¾	2,382,000	—	322,000	242,000	237,000	1,281,000	3,661,000	4,144,000
Portugal and the Azores	3,798,000	3,964,000	1,077,000	68	1,787,000	101⅛	710,000	—	76,000	157,000	353,000	819,000	2,419,000	2,236,000
Italy and the Italian Islands	22,925,000	24,110,000	3,107,000	32½	5,220,000	51⅞	2,113,000	—	782,000	477,000	858,000	2,200,000	2,673,000	2,944,000
Austrian Possessions	35,276,000	37,493,000	608,000	4½	993,000	6⅜	585,000	—	479,000	299,000	494,000	373,000	846,000	986,000
Greece and the Ionian Islands	1,211,000	1,338,000	338,000	67	689,000	123½	351,000	—	98,000	32,000	62,000	537,000	260,000	945,000
Turkey in Europe (except Wallachia and Moldavia)	11,510,000	12,370,000	1,258,000	26¼	2,204,000	42¾	946,000	—	197,000	158,000	90,000	1,125,000	1,109,000	1,589,000
Wallachia and Moldavia	4,390,000	4,720,000	295,000	16⅛	173,000	8¾	—	12,000	64,000	—	28,000	443,000	447,000	2,252,000

Persia, Afghanistan, Beloochistan, Scinde, and Turkistan . . .	20,730,000	21,750,000	—	—	32,000	⅜	32,000	—	—	—	—	—	1,000	—
Arabia (Aden)	10,000,000	10,500,000	14,000	⅜	45,000	1	31,000	—	—	—	1,000	—	—	32,000
India and Ceylon . .	190,000,000	220,000,000	7,462,000	9⅝	17,637,000	19¼	10,175,000	—	756,000	525,000	760,000	13,594,000	12,240,000	17,492,000
TOTAL FOR TURKEY IN ASIA, INDIA, &c. .	237,500,000	270,280,000	9,037,000	9⅛	20,574,000	18⅞	11,537,000	—	1,033,000	70,000	863,000	14,883,000	13,460,000	19,188,000
China	375,000,000	400,000,000	1,574,000	1	5,318,000	3¼	3,744,000	—	49,000	26,000	134,000	5,849,000	9,125,000	9,324,000
Birmah, Malaya, Siam, and Cochin-China (Singapore)	20,000,000	21,000,000	562,000	6¾	1,684,000	19¼	1,122,000	—	22,000	26,000	48,000	633,000	809,000	1,129,000
Indian Islands (except Java)	52,000,000	55,000,000	193,000	⅞	697,000	3	504,000	—	4,000	21,000	7,000	270,000	652,000	799,000
Java	11,225,000	11,850,000	508,000	10⅞	1,414,000	28⅝	906,000	—	7,000	5,000	12,000	118,000	214,000	334,000
TOTAL FOR CHINA, &c.	458,225,000	487,850,000	2,837,000	1½	9,113,000	4½	6,276,000	—	82,000	78,000	201,000	6,870,000	10,800,000	11,586,000
TOTAL AMOUNT FOR ASIA	695,725,000	758,130,000	11,874,000	4⅛	29,687,000	9⅜	17,813,000	—	1,115,000	778,000	1,064,000	21,753,000	24,260,000	30,776,000
AFRICA :—														
Egypt, Nubia, and Abyssinia (Med. and Red Sea Ports)	9,000,000	9,675,000	650,000	17⅜	2,481,000	61½	1,831,000	—	116,000	114.000	119,000	1,841,000	3,356,000	10,351,000
Tripoli and Tunis . .	2,500,000	2,700,000	5,000	½	4,000	⅜	—	1,000	—	—	1,000	—	2,000	14,000
Algeria	2,200,000	2,365,000	15,000	1⅝	44,000	4½	29,000	—	—	—	—	7,000	69,000	2,000
Morocco, Fez, and Tiflet	15,000,000	15,750,000	32,000	½	171,000	2⅝	139,000	—	62,000	18,000	43,000	95,000	232,000	281,000
West Coast and Islands, inclusive of Madeira and the Canaries . .	2,500,000	2,750,000	778,000	74⅝	1,569,000	136⅞	798.000	—	316,000	286,000	274,000	743,000	2,086,000	2,141,000
South Coast	350,000	500,000	797,000	546½	2,064,000	990¾	1,267,000	—	64,000	63,000	97,000	301,000	691,000	1,713,000
East Coast and Islands, inclusive of Madagascar and Mauritius . .	4,750,000	5,100,000	369,000	18½	542,000	25½	173,000	—	28,000	18,000	27,000	1,395,000	1,682,000	1,707,000
Interior of Continent .	53,700,000	56,160,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
TOTAL FOR AFRICA .	90,000,000	95,000,000	2,646,000	7	6,875,000	17⅜	—	—	586,000	499,000	561,000	4,382,000	8,098,000	16,210,000

† N.B.—For these Tables my acknowledgments are due to the *Journal of the Society of Arts*, in which they were first published to illustrate a paper submitted to the Society.

TABLE No. I.—*continued.*

COUNTRIES AND GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	POPULATION.		DECLARED REAL VALUE OF BRITISH AND IRISH PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES EXPORTED.						VALUE OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL PRODUCE EXPORTED.			VALUE OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL PRODUCE IMPORTED.		
			1850.		1860.				Official Value.	Computed Real Value.		Official Value.	Computed Real Value.	
	1850.	1860.		Per Capita.		Per Capita.	Increase.	Decrease.	1850.	1854.	1860.	1850.	1854.	1860.
AMERICA:—			£	D.	£	D.	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Greenland and Russian N. America	50,000	55,000	11,000	52⅞	—	—	—	11,000	5,000	—	—	57,000	93,000	145,000
British North America	2,517,000	3,237,000	3,235,000	308½	3,737,000	277	502,000	—	589,000	301,000	259,000	1,553,000	7,192,000	6,826,000
United States, Atlantic Ports	23,013,000	30,869,000	14,892,000	155¼	21,018,000	163⅜	6,126,000	—	1,666,000	923,000	1,210,000	20,666,000	29,796,000	44,721,000
Mexico and U.S. Pacific Ports	7,664,000	8,759,000	452,000	14⅛	1,057,000	28⅜	605,000	—	210,000	33,000	107,000	635,000	221,000	494,000
British West India Islands	845,000	950,000	1,706,000	484½	1,845,000	466⅛	139,000	—	289,000	167,000	176,000	4,103,000	3,977,000	4,400,000
Hayti	1,000,000	1,200,000	275,000	66	413,000	82⅝	138,000	—	9,000	4,000	4,000	299,000	117,000	123,000
Foreign West India Islands	1,720,000	1,930,000	1,518,000	211¾	2,233,000	277⅝	715,000	—	79,000	48,000	109,000	1,506,000	3,478,000	3,364,000
Central America, inclusive of British Honduras	2,000,000	2,200,000	434,000	52⅛	325,000	35½	—	109,000	39,000	16,000	25,000	1,848,000	708,000	534,000
New Granada	2,300,000	2,525,000	331,000	34½	310,000	77	479,000	—	66,000	14,000	44,000	103,000	376,000	555,000
Venezuela	1,350,000	1,620,000	301,000	53½	324,000	48	23,000	—	6,000	6,000	4,000	51,000	42,000	25,000
Ecuador	750,000	900,000	33,000	10½	74,000	19¾	41,000	—	6,000	2,000	2,000	1,000	29,000	107,000
Guyana, British	127,000	140,000	324,000	612¼	570,000	977⅛	246,000	—	50,000	32,000	46,000	967,000	1,636,000	1,595,000
Guyana, Foreign	87,000	96,000	5,000	13⅜	25,000	62½	20,000	—	—	1,000	1,000	9,000	43,000	91,000
TOTAL FOR LAST NINE DISTRICTS	10,179,000	11,561,000	4,927,000	116⅛	6,619,000	137⅝	1,692,000	—	544,000	290,000	411,000	8,837,000	10,306,000	10,794,000
Brazils	7,000,000	8,100,000	2,545,000	87¼	4,444,000	131⅝	1,899,000	—	57,000	122,000	125,000	2,359,000	2,084,000	2,269,000
Paragua, Urugua, La Plata, &c.	3,305,000	3,650,000	909,000	66	2,705,000	177⅝	1,796,000	—	27,000	42,000	60,000	1,053,000	1,674,000	1,978,000
Chili, Peru, and Bolivia	4,975,000	6,100,000	2,002,000	96½	3,086,000	121⅜	1,084,000	—	167,000	69,000	83,000	2,057,000	4,540,000	5,363,000
Falkland Islands	10,000	12,000	1,000	24	5,000	100	—	4,000	—	2,000	1,000	—	6,000	7,000
TOTAL FOR AMERICA	58,713,000	72,343,000	28,974,000	118⅜	42,671,000	141½	13,697,000	—	3,265,000	1,782,000	2,256,000	37,261,000	55,912,000	72,597,000

AUSTRALIAN & SOUTH SEA ISLANDS	1,000,000	2,000,000	2,620,000	628⅞	9,741,000	1,169	7,121,000	—	376,000	1,478,000	893,000	1,472,000	4,329,000	6,471,000
TOTAL FOR THE WORLD	1,094,176,000	1,196,247,000	71,367,000	15⅝	135,842,000	27¼	64,475,000	—	21,874,000	18,649,000	28,630,000	100,469,000	152,592,000	210,531,000
RECAPITULATION.														
Europe	248,473,000	268,774,000	25,252,000	24⅜	46,868,000	41⅞	21,615,000	—	16,532,000	14,112,000	23,856,000	35,601,000	59,993,000	84,479,000
Asia	695,725,000	758,130,000	11,874,000	4⅛	29,687,000	9⅜	17,813,000	—	1,013,000	778,000	1,064,000	21,753,000	24,260,000	30,774,000
Africa	90,000,000	95,000,000	2,646,000	7	6,895,000	17⅜	4,229,000	—	584,000	499,000	561,000	4,382,000	8,098,000	16,210,000
America	58,713,000	72,343,000	28,974,000	118⅜	42,671,000	14½	13,697,000	—	3,265,000	1,782,000	2,256,000	37,261,000	55,912,000	72,597,000
Australia, &c.	1,000,000	2,000,000	2,620,000	628⅞	9,741,000	1,169	7,121,000	—	876,000	1,478,000	893,000	1,472,000	4,329,000	6,471,000
TOTAL	1,094,176,000	1,196,247,000	71,367,000	15⅝	135,842,000	27¼	64,475,000	—	21,874,000	18,649,000	28,630,000	100,469,000	152,592,000	210,531,000
Foreign Countries	952,261,000	1,032,147,000	51,939,000	13	92,170,000	21⅜	40,231,000	—	19,231,000	15,647,000	26,762,000	74,584,000	118,440,000	167,571,000
British Possessions	141,915,000	164,100,000	19,428,000	32⅞	43,672,000	63⅞	24,244,000	—	2,643,000	3,002,000	2,868,000	28,885,000	34,152,000	42,960,000
TOTAL	1,094,176,000	1,196,247,000	71,367,000	15⅝	135,842,000	27¼	64,475,000	—	21,874,000	18,649,000	28,630,000	100,469,000	152,592,000	210,531,000

TABLE No. II.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL PRODUCE, &c.

VALUE OF FOREIGN AND COLONIAL PRODUCE AND MANUFACTURES, IMPORTED INTO AND EXPORTED FROM GREAT BRITAIN AND IRELAND, IN THE YEARS 1850 AND 1860.

ARTICLES.	OFFICIAL VALUE.				REAL VALUE.	
	1850.		1860.		1860.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
RAW MATERIALS USED IN **ARTS & MANUFACTURES.**	£	£	£	£	£	£
TEXTILE—						
Cotton	21,531,000	6,539,000	44,615,000	15,981,000	35,757,000	5,388,000
Flax	3,776,000	94,000	3,088,000	34,000	3,837,000	35,000
Hemp	960,000	22,000	1,472,000	130,000	1,204,000	93,000
Hair—Goats	53,000	—	†	†	425,000	8,000
,, Horses	54,000	—	74,000	3,000*	119,000	4,000
Jute	—	—	†	†	661,000	29,000
Silk (including Thrown)	2,914,000	555,000	5,285,000	3,161,000	10,578,000	4,107,000
Wool	1,953,000	989,000	3,969,000	2,116,000	11,031,000	2,288,000
Total of Textile	31,241,000	8,199,000	58,503,000	21,125,000	63,612,000	11,952,000
MINERALOGICAL—						
Boracic Acid	35,000	—	†	†	77,000	8,000
Borax	249,000	—	268,000	44,000*	30,000	5,000
Brimstone	345,000	39,000	519,000	7,000*	496,000	7,000
Copper	707,000	114,000	1,599,000	500,000	3,483,000	355,000
Iron	333,000	78,000	527,000	99,000	660,000	93,000
Lead	178,000	48,000	332,000	—	468,000	13,000
Nitre, cubic	189,000	109,000	326,000*	32,000*	502,000	47,000
Potash, &c.	236,000	16,000	181,000	4,000	201,000	4,000
Quicksilver	71,000	304,000	593,000	709,000	272,000	217,000
Saltpetre	190,000	131,000	400,000*	319,000	664,000	58,000
Silver Ore	—	—	383,000	8,000*	383,000	8,000
Soda	38,000	—	14,000	—	11,000	—
Spelter or Zinc	931,000	171,000	1,172,000	41,000	500,000	88,000
Tin Ore	168,000	25,000	291,000	66,000	431,000	68,000
Total of Mineralogical	3,670,000	1,035,000	6,605,000	1,999,000	8,178,000	971,000
DYEING AND COLOURING MATERIALS—						
Annato	30,000	10,000	42,000	25,000*	12,000	7,000
Argol	29,000	—	†	†	120,000	21,000
Bark	88,000	—	94,000	20,000*	164,000	35,000
Cochineal	2,012,000	1,242,000	2,038,000	2,114,000	410,000	304,000
Cutch, &c.	121,000	28,000	247,000	44,000*	220,000	40,000
Dyewoods	707,000	121,000	984,000	53,000	560,000	41,000
Gum	314,000	105,000	282,000	58,000	348,000	77,000
Indigo	1,048,000	1,162,000	1,223,000	1,275,000	2,529,000	1,942,000
Madder Root, &c.	1,597,000	13,000	2,599,000	104,000*	938,000	33,000
Safflower	100,000	—	80,000	45,000*	82,000	45,000
Shumac	85,000	—	91,000	5,000*	168,000	10,000
Valonia	75,000	—	116,000	—	272,000	1,000
Total of Dyeing and Colouring Materials	6,206,000	2,681,000	7,697,000	3,743,000	5,823,000	2,556,000
ANIMAL PRODUCE (not enumerated)—						
Bones	129,000	—	296,000	—	307,000	—
Bristles	43,000	—	48,000	3,000	351,000	25,000
Grease	—	—	†	†	17,000	1,000
Hides	1,833,000	401,000	2,691,000	897,000	3,314,000	954,000
Horns	20,000	—	†	†	131,000	4,000
Isinglass	24,000	—	31,000	2,000*	85,000	5,000
Skins and Furs	354,000	84,000	460,000	209,000	1,412,000	526,000
Sponge	—	—	†	†	286,000	48,000
Tallow	1,329,000	49,000	1,532,000	15,000	4,014,000	26,000
Teeth	58,000	24,000	63,000	20,000*	332,000	105,000
Wax, Bees'	51,000	32,000	55,000	33,000*	100,000	61,000
Whalefins	76,000	—	33,000	9,000*	82,000	22,000
Total of Animal Produce	3,917,000	590,000	5,209,000	1,188,000	10,431,000	1,813,000

* Estimated. † Not enumerated.

TABLE No. II.—*continued.*

ARTICLES.	Official Value.				Real Value.	
	1850.		1860.		1860.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
RAW MATERIALS—*contd.*	£	£	£	£	£	£
Various—						
Caoutchouc	21,000	3,000	149,000	36,000	471,000	141,000
Cork	74,000	—	110,000	15,000*	158,000	22,000
Gutta Percha	17,000	—	†	†	161,000	6,000
Oil	2,336,000	372,000	3,113,000	590,000	5,453,000	1,028,000
Pitch and Tar	126,000	—	141,000	8,000*	212,000	12,000
Rags (for Paper-making)	48,000	—	99,000	—	323,000	—
Rosin	119,000	—	259,000	16,000*	182,000	10,000
Turpentine	218,000	—	93,000	—	86,000	—
Timber	1,265,000	5,000	1,924 000	38,000*	10,570,000	141,000
Do. Hardwoods only	432,000	17,000	396,000	16,000*	630,000	26,000
Total of Various	4,656,000	397,000	6,284,000	719,000	18,246,000	1,386,000
Total of Raw Materials	49,690,000	12,902,000	84,928,000	29,074,000	106,290,000	18,678,000
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE (*not already enumerated*).						
Animals—*Live Stock*—						
Horses	38,000	—	—	—	53,000	—
Oxen, Cows, &c.	99,000	—	161,000	—	1,533,000	—
Sheep and Lambs	32,000	—	71,000	—	554,000	—
Total of Live Stock	169,000	—	232,000	—	2,140,000	—
Provisions—						
Bacon and Hams	791,000	7,000	734,000	2,000*	960,000	2,000
Beef	125,000	—	241,000	17,000*	418,000	28,000
Butter	481,000	—	1,233,000	1,000*	4,078,000	10,000
Cheese	530,000	7,000	858,000	10,000*	1,598,000	22,000
Eggs	33,000	—	†	—	479,000	—
Fish	75,000	—	486,000	14,000*	360,000	11,000
Lard	334,000	—	299,000	—	587,000	1,000
Pork	200,000	—	164,000	—	406,000	—
Poultry, Game, &c.	—	—	†	—	63,000	—
Total of Provisions	2,569,000	14,000	4,015,000	44,000	8,949,000	74,000
Food—*Common*—						
Wheat	6,307,000	9,000	19,098,000	17,000	16,554,000	14,000
Other kinds of Corn and Grain	4,083,000	22,000			10,754,000	5,000
Wheat-meal and Flour	1,895,000	13,000			4,321,000	7,000
Other kinds of Meal and Flour	4,000	—			43,000	—
Potatoes	668,000	—	279,000	—	137,000	—
Total of Common	12,957,000	44,000	19,377,000	17,000	31,809,000	26,000
Chiefly Tropical—						
Cocoa	112,000	52,000	229,000	87,000	287,000	73,000
Coffee	3,172,000	761,000	5,168,000	2,852,000	2,543,000	1,440,000
Fruit	880,000	72,000	1,344,000	301,000	2,361,000	281,000
Hops	24,000	—	258,000	—	569,000	16,000
Rice	663,000	248,000	1,143,000	1,172,000	1,027,000	787,000
Sago	195,000	19,000	252,000	25,000*	150,000	14,000
Spices	753.000	660,000	971,000	1,095,000	473,000	313,000
Sugar	10,407,000	1,182,000	13,478,000	803,000	12,819,000	459,000
Tea	5,051,000	752,000	8,895,000	1,258,000	6,912,000	655,000
Total of Tropical	21,257,000	3,746,000	31,738,000	7,593,000	27,141,000	4,038,000
Total of Provisions, Food and Tropical	36,783,000	3,804.000	55,130,000	7,654,000	67,899,000	6,138,000

* Estimated. † Not enumerated.

TABLE No. II.—*continued.*

ARTICLES.	Official Value.				Real Value.	
	1850.		1860.		1860.	
	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.	Imports.	Exports.
AGRICULTURAL PRODUCE—*continued.*	£	£	£	£	£	£
Chiefly Medicinal—						
Bark, Peruvian . . .	148,000	82,000	128,000	204,000	157,000	209,000
Cream of Tartar . . .	114,000	—	78,000	—	200,000	—
Liquorice Root, &c. . .	50,000	—	148,000	53,000*	99,000	37,000
Rhubarb	100,000	50,000	144,000	133,000	35,000	32,000
Opium	—	—	†	†	196,000	91,000
Tobacco	331,000	136,000	528,000	90,000*	1,495,000	245,000
Total	743,000	268,000	1,026,000	480,000	2,182,000	614,000
Various—						
Guano	1,169,000	226,000	1,414,000	205,000	1,558,000	225,000
Seeds	229,000	29,000	1,781,000	276,000	5,553,000	783,000
Total of Agricultural Produce	39,093,000	4,327,000	59,583,000	8,015,000	79,332,000	5,760,000
MANUFACTURES.						
Textile :—						
Cotton Goods	499,000	227,000	784,000	191,000	759,000	139,000
,, Yarn	34,000	44,000			113,000	97,000
Embroidery	136,000	61,000	144,000	6,000*	94,000	4,000
Hair and Goats' Wool .	160,000	136,000	491,000	233,000	491,000	233,000
Lace	81,000	—	10,000	—	57,000	2,000
Linen	57,000	15,000	93,000	8,000	105,000	8,000
Oil Cloth	—	—	†	†	15,000	1,000
Silk	2,430,000	1,253,000	3,119,000	271,000	3,344,000	224,000
Woollen Goods . . .	682,000	127,000	1,384,000	26,000	1,442,000	26,000
,, Yarn	79,000	—	468,000	2,000*	473,000	2,000
Total of Textile . .	4,158,000	1,863,000	6,493,000	737,000	6,893,000	736,000
Various :—						
Beads and Bugles of Glass	43,000	—	†	†	187,000	85,000
Books	32,000	—	53,000	3,000*	91,000	5,000
Caoutchouc	—	—	208,000	24,000*	75,000	8,000
Clocks and Watches . .	174,000	—	565,000	11,000*	566,000	11,000
Coir Ropes, &c. . . .	50,000	—	136,000	4,000*	155,000	4,000
Flowers, Artificial . .	—	—	†	†	116,000	1,000
Glass of all kinds . . .	223,000	86,000	831,000	100,000	243,000	29,000
Hats and Bonnets of Straw	1,000	—	†	†	100,000	93,000
Leather Boots and Shoes	100,000	—	123,000	16,000*	148,000	19,000
,, Gloves . . .	82,000	—	133,000	7,000*	576,000	25,000
Musical Instruments .	55,000	—	170,000	—	180,000	—
Oil Seed Cake	295,000	—	601,000	1,000*	911,000	2.000
Pictures	—	—	†	†	77,000	2,000
Platting of all kinds .	18,000	—	†	†	194,000	3,000
Spirits	810,000	795,000	991,000	1,361,000	2,066,000	654,000
Tobacco, Manufactured.	24,000	29,000	†	†	283,000	154,000
Wine	1,038,000	349,000	1,410,000	417,000	4,201,000	761,000
Yeast	—	—	—	—	184,000	—
Total of Various . .	2,945,000	1,229,000	5,221,000	1,944,000	10,353,000	1,856,000
Total of Manufactures	7,103,000	3,092,000	11,714,000	2,721,000	17,246,000	2,590,000
UNENUMERATED ARTICLES	4,583,000	1,535,000	9,141,000	2,375,000	7,663,000	1,600,000
Total of all kinds.	100,469,000	21,874,000	164,736,000	43,538,000	210,531,000	28,630,000

* Estimated. † Not enumerated.

TABLE No. III.—EXPORTS OF DOMESTIC PRODUCE, &c.

The Declared Value of the Principal and other Articles of British and Irish Produce and Manufactures exported from the United Kingdom during the Years 1850 and 1860.

	1850.	1860.
MANUFACTURES.	£	£
Textile:—		
Cotton: Goods	20,530,000	40,346,000
Ditto, Hosiery, Lace, &c.	1,343,000	1,742,000
Yarn	6,384,000	9,871,000
Total of Cotton	28,257,000	51,959,000
Linen: Goods	3,589,000	4,435,000
Ditto, Tape, Thread, &c.	358,000	370,000
Yarn	881,000	1,801,000
Total of Linen	4,828,000	6,606,000
Silk: Goods	1,256,000	1,587,000
Yarn (including thrown)		826,000
Woollen: Goods (entered by the piece)	5,381,000	7,097,000
Ditto, by the yard	2,883,000	4,402,000
Ditto, Hosiery, &c.	325,000	657,000
Yarn	1,452,000	3,844,000
Total of Woollen	10,041,000	16,000,000
Various made up: Apparel and Slops	910,000	2,156,000
Haberdashery, &c.	1,470,000	4,005,000
Total of Textile Manufactures	46,762,000	83,139,000
Metallic:—		
Brass and Copper	1,316,000	2,038,000
Guns	231,000	333,000
Hardware and Cutlery	2,641,000	3,771,000
Iron	1,505,000	3,862,000
Machinery: Steam-engines	424,000	1,238,000
Ditto, other kinds	618,000	2,600,000
Tin	944,000	1,501,000
Total of Metal Manufactures	7,679,000	15,343,000
Various:—		
Apothecaries' Wares	363,000	593,000
Agricultural Implements	47,000	255,000
Beer and Ale	559,000	1,868,000
Bleaching Materials	79,000	97,000
Books	229,000	495,000
Bricks	41,000	75,000
Cabinet and Upholstery Wares	102,000	223,000
Candles	98,000	239,000
Caoutchouc and Gutta Percha	32,000	189,000
Carriages of all sorts	61,000	227,000
Confectionery	37,000	135,000
Cordage and Cables	154,000	182,000
Earthenware and Porcelain	999,000	1,451,000
Gunpowder	208,000	353,000
Glass and Glassware	308,000	653,000
Hats of all kinds	155,000	317,000
Leather: Saddlery and Harness	124,000	318,000
Do. other Manufactures	303,000	1,407,000

	1850.	1860.
MANUFACTURES.	£	£
Various—*continued.*		
Mathematical and Optical Instruments	35,000	66,000
Musical Instruments	86,000	145,000
Oil	443,000	1,131,000
Painters' and Colourers' Materials	248,000	475,000
Perfumery	51,000	86,000
Plate, Jewellery, and Watches	286,000	429,000
Platting for Hats of Straw, &c.	102,000	44,000
Pickles and Sauces	138,000	240,000
Saltpetre(refined in United Kingdom	46,000	99,000
Soap	201,000	250,000
Soda	380,000	965,000
Spirits	59,000	286,000
Stationery	408,000	759,000
Sugars	345,000	236,000
Telegraphic Apparatus	—	232,000
Turnery and Turners' Wares	28,000	47,000
Umbrellas and Parasols	83,000	128,000
Total of various Manufactures	6,838,000	14,715,000
METALS, &c. UNWROUGHT:		
Coal, Cinders, and Culm	1,315,000	3,316,000
Copper	662,000	750,000
Iron and Steel	3,845,000	8,292,000
Lead	387,000	701,000
Salt	21,000	120,000
Spelter or Zinc	224,000	358,000
Tin	125,000	362,000
Total of Unwrought Metals, &c.	6,579,000	13,899,000
ANIMALS AND ANIMAL PRODUCE not already mentioned:—		
Horses	88,000	205,000
Bacon and Hams	38,000	288,000
Beef and Pork	29,000	93,000
Butter	211,000	638,000
Cheese	31,000	120,000
Leather, Unwrought	182,000	403,000
Wool	624,000	877,000
Fish, all sorts	338,000	554,000
Total of Animal Produce, &c.	1,541,000	3,178,000
FOOD:—		
Corn, Meal, and Flour	38,000	211,000
Provisions not otherwise named	45,000	248,000
UNENUMERATED ARTICLES	1,885,000	5,109,000
TOTAL EXPORTS OF ALL KINDS	71,367,000	135,842,000

TABLE No. IV.—GENERAL SHIPPING.

TONNAGE OF VESSELS ENTERED AND CLEARED, IN THE PORTS OF THE UNITED KINGDOM, DISTINGUISHING THE FOREIGN FROM THE BRITISH IN THE YEARS 1850 AND 1860.

GEOGRAPHICAL DIVISIONS.	1850.						1860.					
	ENTERED.			CLEARED.			ENTERED.			CLEARED.		
	British.	Foreign.	Total.	British.	Foreign.	Total.	British.	Foreign.	Total.	British.	Foreign.	Total.
	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Europe	2,511,000	1,675,000	1,186,000	2,497,000	1,842,000	4,339,000	3,920,000	3,608,000	7,528,000	3,917,000	3,532,000	7,449,000
Asia	342,000	9,000	351,000	361,000	34,000	395,000	604,000	65,000	669,000	766,000	267,000	1,033,000
Africa	185,000	32,000	217,000	155,000	28,000	183,000	288,000	44,000	332,000	297,000	68,000	365,000
America	1,600,000	684,000	2,284,000	1,582,000	757,000	2,339,000	1,955,000	1,561,000	3,516,000	1,797,000	1,551,000	3,348,000
Australia, &c.	62,000	—	62,000	147,000	1,000	148,000	122,000	5,000	127,000	249,000	72,000	321,000
Total	4,700,000	2,400,000	7,100,000	4,742,000	2,662,000	7,404,000	6,890,000	5,283,000	12,173,000	7,026,000	5,490,000	12,516,000
Total of entered and cleared . .	—	—	—	9,442,000	5,062,000	14,504,000	—	—	—	13,916,000	10,773,000	24,689,000
Per cent. of whole	—	—	—	65	35	100	—	—	—	56½	43½	100
Increase per cent.	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	47	112	70

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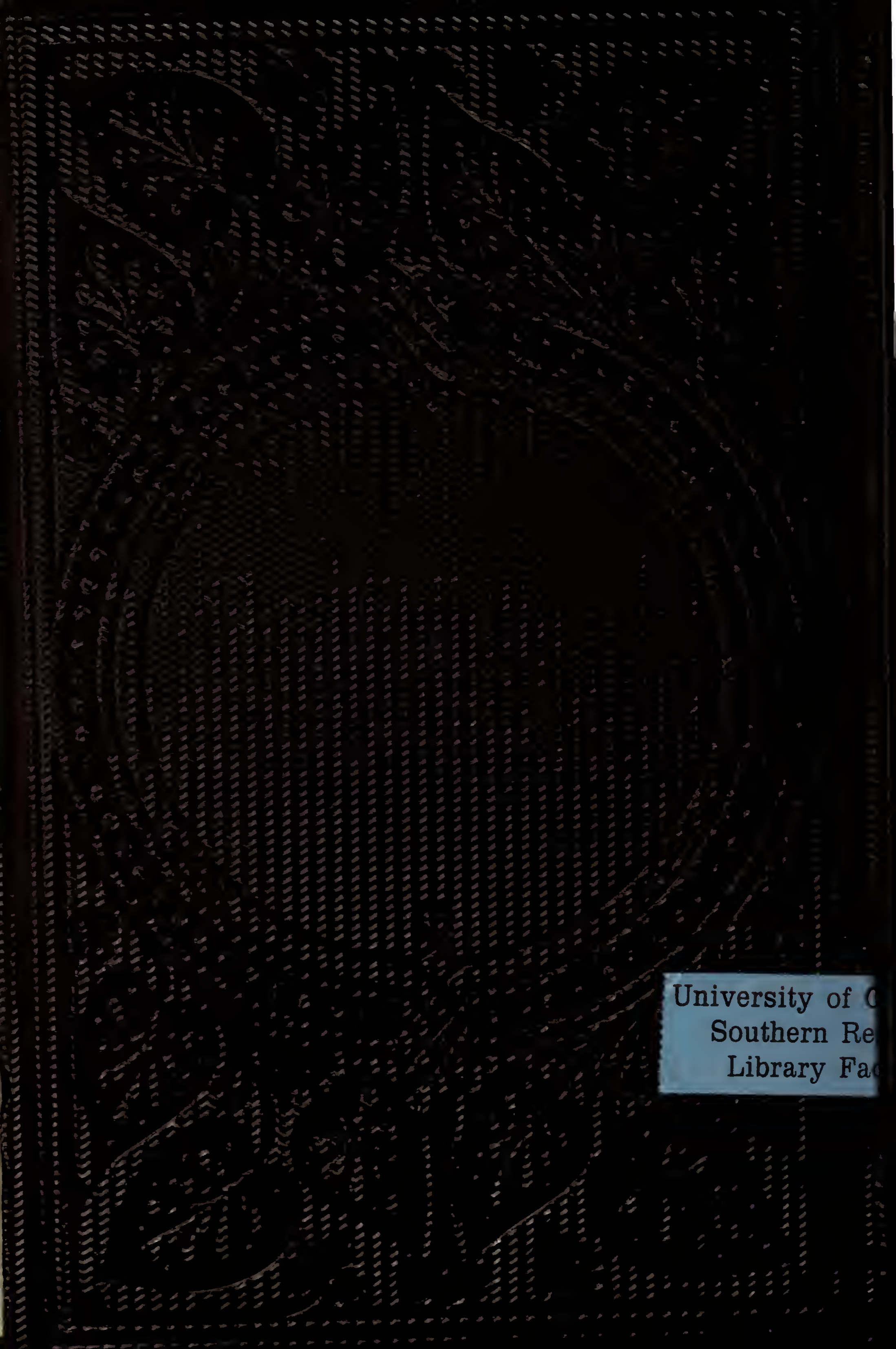

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